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ANALYSIS

ENGLISH SENTENCE

BEEMAN

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THE
Analysis of The
ENGLISH SENTENCE

WITH

Supplement

BY

Marion N. Beeman.

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DEDICATION.

To the many boys and girls who have been my pupils, and are now my loving friends, this book is most affectionately inscribed.

PREFACE.

This is not the only grammar. The author sends it forth with some diffidence. Through many years of constant teaching, he has not ceased to feel a want in the study of our language in the common schools. Nor does he claim that this work is a panacea for every ill, or a complete reformation in the methods of the study of our language. The effort has been to supplant interest-destroying formalities, and to look into the meaning of the various forms that our language has assumed, with the hope that the real content may be found to live and breathe in the form, and that the study of the language may so furnish its own inspiration.

The author believes that there are few other fields of study so productive of real culture as are those of language and literature. With the hope of arousing the boys and girls to a living love for the splendid array of associations among which they may live in literature, he has sought, by this method of treatment, to lead them to a deeper appreciation of the language that they see and hear—that glorious vehicle of thought excelled by none other—by touching upon the realm of the origin of its various peculiarities, where mind struggled with, and mastered form, and made it its means of expression.

If these lessons serve to lead boys and girls to love good literature for the good and wholesome company it will furnish them, by pointing the way to good literature through the study of the language that is so richly laden with it, the author's highest hope will have been realized.

ROBINSON, ILLINOIS,

April 27, 1900.

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THE ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH SENTENCE.

LESSON I.

DEFINITIONS AND COMMENTS.

To the Teacher.—To undertake to teach this course in analysis without first provoking thought on the part of the pupil, will be next to fruitless. The teacher is left to his own resources in the matter of devices, as he ought to be; but the definitions that follow must be preceded by a clear understanding of their meaning, in the mind of every pupil. Some time therefore must be given to the first lessons, as in these lies the foundation of good work to follow. Each successive lesson is built upon the lessons that precede it. Hence not clearly to possess the first two lessons, is to lack a good foundation. Let the teacher select his own device, but let him understand that these lessons must be known by the pupil.

1. **A word** is the expression of an idea.

2. **An idea** is a mind-consciousness or an image of a thing, an action, or a relation.

Ideas of actions and of things are either fundamental elements of thought, or they are ideas related to fundamental ideas. Related ideas used in that mind-action called thought, or thinking, we may call attributive ideas.

a. An idea is fundamental when it constitutes the basic element of a thought.

b. An idea is attributive when it constitutes the secondary element of a thought.

3. **Thought** is that mind-activity which compares fundamental and attributive ideas, and notes that they agree or disagree.

4. **Judgment** is the result of that mind-activity called thought. It is the mind-decision as to whether the ideas compared agree or disagree.

a. Every judgment consists of two principal parts, namely:

1. A fundamental idea—the subject of the thought, and,

2. A related, or attributive idea—some attribute of of the subject of the thought, together with the mind-decision of agreement (or disagreement) between these two elements, or parts.

NOTE.—These two elements or parts of a judgment may be simple, or they may be complex to almost any degree. However complex they may be, they are always traceable to the form—1, fundamental idea—subject of the thought, and 2, attributive idea—some attribute of the subject of the thought, together with the agreement, that is, the mind-decision of agreement, between these two ideas.

LESSON II.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

A judgment consists of two parts, namely: 1. Fundamental idea the subject of the thought, and, 2. Attributive idea—some attribute of the subject of the thought, together with the mind-decision of agreement between these two ideas.

1. **A sentence** is the expression of a judgment.

Since a sentence is the expression of a judgment, it must be the expression of the fundamental idea, and the attributive idea together with the expression of the mind-decision of agreement between these two ideas.

In order to be the expression of a judgment, there-

fore, a sentence must consist of two principal parts, which we may call—

1. **Subject**, Latin *sub*, under, and *jecto*, throw, hurl, etc., here meaning, “to place under the action of the mind.”

2. **Predicate**, Latin *prae*, before, and *dico*, speak, say, declare, assert, here meaning, assert agreement.

Definitions:—

1. *Subject*.—The subject of a sentence is the expression of the fundamental element of a judgment.

2. *Predicate*.—The predicate of a sentence is the expression of the attributive element of a judgment together with the mind-decision of agreement between the related idea and the fundamental idea.

The word that is the expression of the mind-decision asserts the agreement between the attributive idea and the fundamental idea.

Illustration.—In the sentence, “Sugar is sweet,” “sugar” is the expression of the fundamental idea, and “sweet” is the expression of the attributive idea, and “is” is the expression of the mind-decision of agreement between those ideas.

“Sugar” is the subject. It is the expression of the fundamental idea.

“Is sweet” is the predicate. It is the expression of the attributive idea, and the assertion of agreement between these two ideas.

EXERCISE I.—Discuss as above the thoughts expressed by the following sentences:—

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Summer is passing. | 6. I am old. |
| 2. Man is human. | 7. John is young. |
| 3. Truth is divine. | 8. Mary is beautiful. |
| 4. Music is pleasing. | 9. Skating is delightful. |
| 5. Silence is golden. | 10. Seeing is believing. |

EXERCISE II.—Write simple sentences like the above, using *am, is, was, are, were*—the various forms of the verb “*be*”—with the following words as subjects: *memory, platinum, fire, glass, Hercules, Socrates, appearances, writing, stealing, trying.*

NOTE.—In the nature of our language, the sole power to assert lies within the province of the verb “*be*,” that is, in the force of that verb, with its various forms—*am, is, are, was, were.* Without the form or the force of this verb, no assertion can be made. This verb is not an essential element of thought, but it is impossible, owing to the nature of our language, to make an assertion without it.

NOTE.—Some of the words here chosen to be used as subjects may require that the pupil search the reference books, etc. The exercise that requires no effort on the pupil’s part is valueless.

LESSON III.

THE COMPLEX SUBJECT AND THE COMPLEX PREDICATE.

You will observe that in Lesson II., we had given only the simplest forms of the sentence. These sentences contain only the simple subject and the simple predicate. Every sentence in the English language must have a subject and a predicate, either expressed or implied. Every sentence; however long or involved, is resolvable into these two parts.

“The beautiful roses are opening.”

Notice that in the above sentence we have more than the simple form, “*Roses are opening.*” We have used “*the*” to point out particular roses, and “*beautiful*” to express the idea of a quality of roses. The one main, or principal, or primary idea is expressed by “*roses*,” while two other subordinate related ideas are expressed by “*the*” and “*beautiful*,” respectively. We now have the expression not of a single idea alone, but of a complex idea. Hence:

“The beautiful roses” is the complex subject. It is the expression of the complex fundamental idea. “Roses” is the simple subject. It is the expression of the simple fundamental idea. The idea expressed by “roses” is limited by the idea expressed by “the” and qualified by the idea expressed by “beautiful.”

“Washington was then commanding there.”

In the foregoing sentence, notice that we have more than the simple form, “Washington was commanding.” We have used the words “there” and “then” to tell where Washington was commanding and when Washington was commanding. We now have more than is told by the simple form, “was commanding.” We have the two related subordinated ideas expressed by “there” and “then” added to the simple idea of action expressed by “commanding.” Hence, in the expression, “was then commanding there,” we have more than a simple idea predicated; we have a complex idea predicated. Hence, “was then commanding there” is the complex predicate. “Was commanding” is the simple predicate. It is the expression of the simple attributive idea and the assertion of agreement. The idea of action expressed by “commanding” is limited by the idea expressed by “there,” denoting the place, and also by the idea expressed by “then,” denoting the time.

Definitions:—

1. **The Simple Subject** of a sentence is the expression of the simple fundamental idea.

2. **The Complex Subject** of a sentence is the expression of the simple fundamental idea together with one or more related subordinated ideas that limit or qualify it.

3 **The Simple Predicate** is that part of the

sentence which expresses the single attributive idea and asserts the agreement existing between this and the fundamental idea.

4. **The Complex Predicate** is that part of the sentence which expresses the single attributive idea together with one or more ideas related and subordinated to the attributive idea, and also asserts the agreement that exists between this attributive group of ideas and the fundamental idea.

In the sentence, "The beautiful roses are opening," "The beautiful roses" is the complex subject; it is the expression of the complex fundamental idea. The idea expressed by "roses" is limited by the idea expressed by "the," and qualified by the idea expressed by "beautiful." "Are opening" is the simple predicate; it is the expression of the single attributive idea—an attribute of action—and the assertion of agreement between this attribute and its subject.

In the sentence,—"Washington was then commanding there," "Washington" is the simple subject; it is the expression of the simple fundamental idea. "Was then commanding there" is the complex predicate. It is the expression of the single attributive idea (commanding) together with two ideas related and subordinate to this attributive idea, and the assertion of the agreement that exists between this attributive group of ideas and the fundamental idea expressed by "Washington."

EXERCISE I.—Compose like the above models—

1. Five sentences having complex subjects.
2. Five sentences having complex predicates.

NOTE:—Let the teacher assure himself that all directions for exercises such as the above are thoroughly understood by each pupil, and then require each pupil to follow the directions exactly.

LESSON IV.

ANALYSIS AND THE DIAGRAM.

Directions.—First read the sentence, then read the subject, and then the predicate of each one, of the following list :—

1. The green ivy is a dainty plant.
2. The blue heavens are smiling today.
3. Ants are the busiest little animals.
4. The Holy Bible is the Christian's guide.
5. The joyous springtime is coming again.
6. Is the procession coming now ?
7. Lincoln was our mightiest chieftain.
8. Hope is the good man's inspiration.
9. Bright fleecy clouds are floating northward.
10. Is the lesson very difficult today ?

Definitions:—

1. **Analysis** in grammar is the study of the meaning of words, and of the relations existing between the different parts of the sentence.

The word, "analysis," comes from two Greek words, namely, "ana," meaning "again," and "luso," meaning "to set free," "to unbind," or "to separate." Hence the definition—"Analysis is the separation of a sentence into its parts."

This literal definition is faulty, to say the least, for hardly is there, in any sense, a "separation of the sentence into its parts." True analysis is merely and only a study of the meaning of the words, and of the relations existing between the different parts of the sentence.

2. **A diagram** is a picture by which we may hold before the eye the groups of words in a sentence which express related ideas.

NOTE 1.—Some grammarians have abandoned and pronounced

against the use of the diagram. We, however, regard it as a mere device by which the pupil may be assisted in seeing relations. The diagram is like the figure used in demonstrating a difficult problem in arithmetic; it is merely a device.

NOTE 2.—Analysis and the diagram are not an end, but a means, in the study of language. Both are subservient to the one purpose—to enable the student to secure a complete possession of the author's thought as expressed in the sentence, through a clear perception of the exact relations of the parts of the sentence.

NOTE 3.—In every exercise in analysis, let it not be forgotten that the thought lies couched in the sentence, and that the analysis, and the diagram, if used, are both simply a means of reaching and possessing the thought. Many teachers fail to inspire within the pupil a love for the study of grammar, because they fail to realize this truth.

LESSON V.

THE NOMINATIVE ATTRIBUTE.*

An attribute (Latin, *ad*, to, or toward, and *tribuo*, give, assign, pay) is that which may be assigned to, or which belongs to a thing.

“Nominative” (Latin, *nomen*, name, or *nomino*, I name) means “pertaining to that which names.” In grammar, the term “nominative” is used with reference to the noun, or substantive substitute, used to express the fundamental element of a judgment.

The **Nominative Attribute** is, therefore, some attribute of the person or thing named by the subject, between which and the subject the predicate verb asserts agreement.

In the sentence, “Henry is a shoemaker,” “shoemaker,” is the complement of the predicate; and since it is the expression of an attribute of the person named by the subject word (Henry), it is a “nominative attribute.”

In the sentence, “The day is beautiful,” “beauti-

ful" is the complement of the predicate; and since it is the expression of an attribute of the thing named by the subject (day), it is a "nominative attribute."

In the sentence, "Summer is passing," "passing" is the complement of the predicate; and since it is an attribute of the thing named by the subject (summer), it is a "nominative attribute."

Hence, from the nature of the attribute as above illustrated, we observe that there are three kinds, namely:

1. Substantive Attribute,—the use of a noun as nominative attribute, to tell what the thing named by the subject is, or is supposed to be.

2. Attribute of Quality,—the use of an adjective as nominative attribute, to express some quality of the person or thing named by the subject.

3. Attribute of Action,—the use of an infinitive as nominative attribute, to express the idea of some action of or upon the person or thing named by the subject.

NOTE 1.—Of the above, the first is called, by most grammarians, the "predicate noun," and the second, the "predicate adjective." The third must be called the "predicate infinitive;" because it must have a name in the same category.

NOTE 2.—The word "passing" is an infinitive. It is the expression of an idea of action without a governing word.

In the predicate of the sentence, "The summer is passing," "passing" is the expression of the idea of an action without the limitation of the "person and number of its subject." Hence, passing is an infinitive. In the same sentence, "is" (a form of the verb "be") is limited by the "person" and "number" of its subject, and is therefore, the verb of the predicate.

EXERCISE I.—Write four sentences using nouns as Attribute Complements. Write four sentences using

adjectives as Attribute Complements. Write four sentences using ing-infinitives as Attribute Complements.

EXERCISE II.—Analyze the following sentences:—

1. The November rain is quietly falling.
2. Springtime sunshine is always very welcome.
3. The Great Sahara is a vast sandy desert.
4. The enemy's hosts are swiftly approaching.
5. Are you going away today?

EXERCISE III.—Write similar sentences, using the following words as attribute complements:—singing, entrancing, musician, philosopher, radiant, picturesque.

NOTE.—Let the sentences be the expression of true and worthy thought.

LESSON VI.

THE NOMINATIVE ATTRIBUTE—Continued.

There is another class of verbs that have the power, in a certain use, to assert the agreement between the fundamental, and the attributive elements of a judgment. These verbs, however, assert with the power of the verb "be." But instead of asserting the agreement as a positive fact, they rest the degree of certainty of agreement upon the determining power of one or more of the special senses.

The special senses are the avenues by which the soul within us receives ideas of sight, sound, taste, smell, and touch from the outer world. The verbs "looks," "sounds," "smells," "tastes," and "feels" are used to assert attributes depending for their certainty as such, upon the senses, respectively.

In the sentence,—*"The elephant looks unwieldy,"* "looks" asserts the agreement between the ideas ex-

pressed by “elephant” and “unwieldy,” not as a positive fact, but as a fact depending for its degree of certainty upon the sense of sight.

Such is the real nature of the assertions made by all of the foregoing “verbs of sense,” or “sense verbs.”

These same verbs are sometimes used with the full force of “attributive verbs.” Then they are treated as other transitive or intransitive verbs. (The verb will be treated more fully in succeeding lessons.)

EXERCISE I.—Analyze the following sentences, and give a full and close discussion of the nature and power of the verbs used:—

1. The Bengal tiger looks very ferocious.
2. That young man’s voice sounds very familiar.
3. Those rosy apples taste delicious.
4. The Lily of the Valley smells fragrant.
5. New silken velvet feels quite smooth.

Study out the nature and use of the words “very” and “quite” in the above sentences.

EXERCISE II.—Compose five sentences using the same verbs, but selecting other subjects and attributes.

The sentences above are similar in structure to those given in Lesson IV. They differ mainly in the nature of the thought found in the peculiarity of the verb; that is, in the nature of the assertion.

LESSON VII.

THE NOMINATIVE ATTRIBUTE.—Continued.

The words “seems” and “appears” are used also to assert agreement between the fundamental and the attributive elements of a judgment. They differ in nature from the list in the preceding lesson, in that they seem to depend for the certainty of the agreement they assert, not on any one special sense, but

upon a partial conclusion resulting from the exercise of several or all of the senses. Possibly "appears" is related in meaning to the verb "looks" in the list given in Lesson VI.

There are many attributive verbs (See Outlines of the Verb) that are also used to assert agreement. These are verbs that are usually intransitive. When used in this assertive, or "copulative" way, they may at the same time retain much of their force as attributive verbs. Yet their special value in this use is to assert the agreement between the attribute and its subject. Many verbs used in this way signify continuance or progress.

In the sentence, "The boy becomes a man," "becomes" indicates the progress of the person named by the subject (boy) toward or into identity with the condition or state expressed by the attribute, "man." In structure, the above sentence is like the sentence, "The boy is a man." This latter sentence is not true, in the nature of things, as the fundamental idea expressed by "boy" cannot be identical with the attributive idea expressed by "man," except in the exercise of "poetic license." The two sentences differ in real meaning. In the first sentence, the verb "becomes" denotes the progress of the fundamental idea expressed by "boy" toward or into identity with the attributive idea expressed by "man."

EXERCISE I.—Compose four sentences using the verbs "seems" and "appears" in the sense above described.

EXERCISE II.—Analyze the following sentences, and closely discuss the meaning of the verbs, and their force, in this use:—

1. They departed yesterday fast friends.
2. They returned today mortal enemies.
3. Raleigh became Elizabeth's favorite.
4. That pupil remains standing.
5. Her name continues spotless.
6. He lives beloved.
7. Sir Philip Sidney died a hero.
8. Christ was a mighty conqueror.
9. My beloved mother grows feeble.
10. Washington became a great general.

NOTE.—Still another phase of the Nominative Attribute will be considered hereafter in connection with the passive voice of certain transitive verbs.

LESSON VIII.

THE ATTRIBUTIVE VERB IN PREDICATE.

The Attributive Verb is of a two-fold nature. By it we may express an attribute of action, and also assert the agreement existing between this attribute and the subject or the subjective recipient of the action.

Attributive Verbs are of two kinds by nature:

1. **Intransitive**, expressing an attribute of action that is not received by some object, and asserting the agreement between this attribute and the subject; and,
2. **Transitive**, expressing an attribute of action that is received by some object, and asserting the agreement.

In the sentence, "The pupils study," "study" equals "are studying," in force of expression, the *ing*-infinitive expressing the attributive idea (action), and the verb "are" (a form of the verb "be") asserting the agreement between this attribute and its subject.

NOTE 1.—In stating that the verb “study” equals the expression “are studying,” we mean merely to show the force of the verb “study.” Such verbs have the power to express ideas of action as attributes of the subject, and to assert the agreement between these attributes and the subject.

NOTE 2.—Every attributive verb has this double nature, or power—that of expressing an idea of action as an attribute of its subject, and of asserting the agreement between this attribute and its subject.

In this lesson we shall discuss only the intransitive verbs.

NOTE 3.—All such verbs as “runs,” “flies,” “swims,” etc., are of this two-fold nature, thus; “runs” equals “is running,” “flies” equals “is flying,” “swims” equals “is swimming,” etc.—each having the power to express an idea of action by the ing-infinitive, and to assert the agreement between this attribute of action and the subject, by the power of the verb “be.”

EXERCISE I.—Write twenty attributive verbs that are intransitive.

EXERCISE II.—Analyze the following sentences, according to the subjoined model.

“The beautiful humming-bird flies swiftly.”

“The beautiful humming-bird” is the complex subject; it is the expression of the complex fundamental idea.

“Humming-bird” is the simple subject; it is the expression of the simple fundamental idea.

The idea expressed by “humming-bird” is limited by the idea expressed by “the,” and qualified by the idea expressed by “beautiful.”

“Flies swiftly” is the complex predicate; it is the expression of the complex attributive idea together with the expression of the mind-decision of agreement.

“Flies” is the simple predicate.

The idea of action expressed by “flies” (flying) is

qualified by the idea expressed by "swiftly," denoting the manner of the flying.

1. The beautiful humming-bird flies swiftly.
2. The loud-mouthed cannon boom defiantly.
3. The ocean waves dash tumultuously.
4. The stately ship sails gallantly away.
5. The defeated army retires reluctantly.
6. The winter wind howls dismally.

EXERCISE III.—Compose five sentences using in-transitive verbs, with only simple word modifiers.

LESSON IX.

THE ATTRIBUTIVE VERB—Continued.

The Transitive Attributive Verb expresses an idea of action that is received by some person or thing, and asserts the agreement between this idea of action, as an attribute, and its subject.

The Transitive Attributive Verb expresses an idea of some action of its subject that is shown to be received by some object, or it expresses the idea of an action of some other agent which has been received by its subject.

Hence, a Transitive Attributive Verb is—

1. "Active," when it expresses the idea of some action of its subject that is received by some object; or
2. "Passive," when its perfect infinitive expresses an idea of action that has been received by its subject from some other agency.

In the sentence, "The wind shook the trees," "shook" (was shaking) expresses an idea of action of its subject, that is seen to be received by the object, "trees;" "shook" is therefore, a transitive attributive verb in the active voice.

In the sentence, "The trees were shaken by the

wind," "were" asserts the action expressed by "shaken" as received by the subject, "trees," from the agent, "wind." "Were shaken," therefore constitutes a transitive attributive verb in the passive voice.

EXERCISE I.—Write a list of twenty transitive attributive verbs.

EXERCISE II.—Write ten sentences using the transitive attributive verb in the active voice.

EXERCISE III.—Write the same sentences again with the verb in the "passive voice." Note what becomes of the former object that received the act, and of the former subject.

EXERCISE IV.—Analyze the following sentences according to the subjoined model:—

1. John writes letters.
2. The good boy loves his mother.
3. The careless maid spilled the milk.
4. British soldiers burned Washington City.
5. The Americans defeated the Hessians.
6. The sun softens the snow.

Model:—

"John" is the subject; it is the expression of the fundamental idea.

"Writes letters" is the complex predicate; it is the expression of the complex attributive idea, and the assertion of agreement between this complex idea and the fundamental idea.

"Writes" is the simple predicate.

The idea of action expressed by "writes" (writing) is limited by the idea expressed by "letters," denoting the direct recipient of the action. It is a direct object; it receives the action directly from the subject.

NOTE.—In truth, the "activity" or the "passivity," in the real sense, is in the subject—is in the fundamental element of the

judgment, and not in the verb at all. The verb, however, is changed in form when the idea of the objective recipient of the action is made to be the fundamental element of the judgment, and *vice versa*. And, because the verb undergoes this change in form, grammarians see fit to discuss the "Active Voice" and the "Passive Voice" of the Verb.

LESSON X.

THE OBJECTIVE ATTRIBUTE.

In the sentence, "We made her happy," "happy" is a basic element of the direct object: it expresses an attribute of the person named by "her"—an attribute of quality. At the same time, "happy" is the expression of an essential part of what is predicated. It is an attribute not of the subject, "we," but of "her," the objective recipient of the action. Therefore, it is an objective attribute, and this objective attribute is the result of the action of the persons designated by the subject, "we," upon the person named by the word "her."

In the sentence, "They made him write," "write" is a basic element of the direct object. It is the expression of an attribute of action. At the same time, the idea expressed by "write" is an essential part of what is predicated. It is an attribute not of the subject, "they," but of the objective recipient of the action "him." It is therefore an objective attribute, and this objective attribute is the result of the action of the persons named by the subject, "they," upon the person named by the object "him."

In the sentence, "They elected McKinley President," "President" is a basic element of the direct object. It is the expression of an attribute of the person named by "McKinley," a substantive attribute. At the same time, "President" is the expression of

an essential part of the thing predicated. It is an attribute not of the subject, "they," but of "McKinley," the objective recipient of the action. It is the result of the action of the persons designated by "they," upon the person named by "McKinley."

In the above sentences we have observed that the objective attributes may be :

1. An Adjective, "We made her *happy*."
2. An Infinitive, "They made him *write*."
3. A Noun, They elected McKinley *President*.

EXERCISE I.—Write ten sentences to illustrate the objective attribute.

EXERCISE II.—Analyze the following sentences according to the model given below:—

1. They named him John.
2. I called him father.
3. The king dubbed him knight.
4. The grass made the field green.
5. They appointed her uncle guardian.

Model:—

"They chose her queen."

"They" is the subject; it is the expression of the fundamental idea.

"Chose her queen" is the complex predicate; it is the expression of the complex attributive idea, and of the mind-decision of agreement between these two ideas.

"Chose" is the simple incomplete predicate; it is completed and limited by the double idea expressed by "her queen," the *double object*. "Her" designates the direct recipient of the action, and "queen" is the expression of the idea of the new attribute of "her," as a result of the action.

NOTE.—The double object is a simple element, yet it is of a double

nature. It is not double in the sense of being compound, but in constituting a complete objective element only in the use of the two parts together. It is properly called "double object," as it is a distinct element of neither a complex nor a compound nature. "Complex element" implies a basic element qualified or limited by an element or elements subordinate in rank to the basic element. "Compound element" implies two or more elements of the same rank used co-ordinately and co-joined. The element under consideration is unlike either of these. It is simply double in its nature, though a simple element. Hence it is properly called "double object."

In the sentences given above such verbs as "make," "call," "choose," "elect," etc., are used. Such verbs in the active voice, are usually followed by the double object; that is, the direct object and some attribute of the direct object used together as one element.

In each of the foregoing sentences, the objective attribute is the result of some action of the person named by the subject upon the person named as receiving the action. On this account, some grammarians have called the "objective attribute" the "resultant object." Others, because the objective attribute is an essential part of the thing predicated, and is therefore a complement of the predicate, have called it the "objective complement." Still others, because this element follows verbs of making, calling, choosing, electing, etc., have called it the "factative object," from the Latin verb, *facio*, to make.

However, none of these names properly designate the element under consideration; for these names apply to only one of the two inseparable parts of the element. We should call it the double object: as it consists of the direct object and the objective attribute.

LESSON XI.

THE OBJECTIVE ATTRIBUTE—Continued.

There are various kinds of verbs used in predicate which take the double object. In the case of the nominative attribute, not only are the pure copulative verbs used to make the assertions of agreement, but a long list of verbs more or less removed from the nature of the pure copulative verbs are used, also; as, for instance, "the verbs of sense."

In the study of the English language we frequently encounter such expressions as these:—"We thought him wise." "We considered it a safe venture." They saw him fall," etc., etc. We see in these expressions some likeness in use to the verbs "appears," "seems," etc.; that is, we note a strong similarity between the nature of verbs used to assert agreement where we gave special notice to the nominative attribute and that of the verb used to make assertions in sentences in which the objective attribute occurs. In the latter case, we note that not only are pure factative verbs used to predicate, but also a long list of impure factative verbs; that is, of "verbs of mental action."

The verbs, "consider," "saw," "thought," etc., are properly called "verbs of mental action," by Latin grammarians. We may then make the statement that—"factative verbs" and "verbs of mental action" express ideas that may be limited by the double object.

We have seen that there are, from their nature, three kinds of nominative attributes, namely: (1) Substantive, (2) Adjective, and (3) Infinitive.

When we examine the objective attribute, we note that, from their nature, there are likewise three kinds, namely: (1) Substantive, (2) Adjective, and (3) Infinitive.

NOTE—Some authors regard the objective attribute as a contracted clause, objective. It is true that this element may be expanded, generally, into a clause; still we prefer to regard it as a distinct element. Expansion may indeed assist in making the meaning clearer, yet such expansions usually result, at best, in a bulky, clumsy form of expression.

EXERCISE I.—Write ten sentences in which the double object occurs, using the following verbs: *Call, elect, choose, appoint, consider, suppose, believe, think, see, hear.*

EXERCISE II.—Analyze the following sentences according to the subjoined model:—

1. Santa Claus makes the children happy.
2. The setting sun makes the sky crimson.
3. David struck Goliath dead.
4. He baked the bread brown.
5. We supposed him a thief.
6. Our forefathers elected Washington the first President.
7. They painted the shutters green.
8. The teacher made the boy study.
9. Rene thought the young sultan an Arabian storyteller.
10. We pronounced his course wisely chosen.

Model:—

“We elected Mary queen.”

“We” is the subject; it is the expression of the fundamental idea.

“Elected Mary queen” is the complex predicate; it is the expression of the complex attributive idea together with the expression of the mind-decision of agreement between this attributive idea and the fundamental idea.

“Elected” is the simple predicate; the idea of action expressed in “elected” is limited by the double

idea expressed by "Mary queen," a double object. "Mary" denotes the direct recipient of the action of electing, and "queen" denotes the result of the act of electing.

LESSON XII.

THE NOMINATIVE ATTRIBUTE.

In the preceding lesson, you will note that the verb is used only in the active voice, the verb in each sentence being transactive. In this lesson, we shall examine the same verbs in the passive voice, and as well the consequence of the change from the active voice to the passive voice on the objective attribute and also on the entire double object.

In the sentence, "We elected Mary queen," let us put the verb in the passive voice. As explained in the discussion of the transitive attributive verb, in a former lesson, the former objective recipient of the action now becomes the subject of the verb, thus:

"Mary was elected queen (by us)."

Note that the former subject is now, as before, the agent of the action of electing, but not the subject of the verb. "Mary" is the expression of the fundamental idea, and "queen," now, as before, is the expression of an attribute of the person named by "Mary." But, as "Mary" is now the subject of the verb, that is, nominative, "queen" is no longer the expression of the objective attribute, but of an attribute of the subject nominative; that is, a nominative attribute. (See Lesson V. on the Nominative Attribute).

The verb "was elected" not only asserts the agreement of this attribute and its subject, by the power of the verb "was" (form of the verb "be"), but desig-

nates "by "elected," the process by which "Mary" became possessed of the new attribute expressed by "queen."

EXERCISE I.—Write ten sentences using those verbs that take the double object, in the active voice, but changing the sentences so that the verb is in the passive voice.

EXERCISE II.—Analyze the following sentences according to the model given below:—

1. Hamlet was considered insane.
2. Washington Irving was chosen ambassador.
3. Captivity was led captive.
4. His enemy was struck dead.
5. The idle pupil was made work.
6. Julius Cæsar was hailed emperor.
7. Victoria was crowned queen.
8. I was summoned a witness.
9. The Jews were carried away captive.
10. The ship was anchored safe.

Model:—

"John was chosen captain."

"John" is the subject; it is the expression of the fundamental idea.

"Was chosen captain" is the simple predicate; it is the expression of the simple attributive idea (captain), and the assertion of agreement. "Was" is the expression of the mind-decision of agreement. "Chosen" is the expression of the idea of the process by which "John" became possessed of the new attribute expressed by "captain."

LESSON XIII.

THE DOUBLE OBJECT.

In connection with this subject, we wish to consider such expression as the following:

“ We supposed him to be scholarly.”

In this sentence, “to be” is an infinitive—a fragment resulting from the contraction, or abridgement, of the objective clause. In the entire list of sentences given in Lesson XI., the “objective attribute” is the final fragment resulting from this contraction, or abridgement, of the objective clause, and each may be considered the complement of the “Infinitive with subject accusative,” which occurs so frequently in the Latin “*oratio obliqua*”—indirect discourse. In all such cases, frequently occurring in the English, also, the attribute, whether substantive, adjective, or infinitive, is the essential result of the contraction, and this part especially deserves consideration.

Whether this infinitive expression be short or long, it, taken with the real attribute of the object, forms essentially, the attributive part of the double object.

EXERCISE I.—Study and analyze the following sentences according to the models given in Lesson XI., and XII:—

1. The teacher thought the idea to be foolish.
2. The soldiers thought retreating to be surrendering.
3. Napoleon thought to retreat to be to surrender.
4. Imagination makes a mole-hill a mountain.
5. The boy’s fancy makes the broomstick a real pony.
6. Many stars are supposed to be suns.
7. The lesson was thought to be difficult.
8. The lazy pupil believed the lesson to be difficult.

9. Too great prosperity makes a strong nation weak.
10. Americans call New York the Empire State.

LESSON XIV.

THE INDIRECT OBJECT.

“Verbs of giving” may take two objects, one a direct object, and the other an “indirect object.” The person or thing to which, and sometimes for which, a thing is given, or done, is the indirect recipient of the act of “doing,” or “giving,” and is on that account an “indirect object.”

In the sentence, “Mary gave her mother a book,” “Mary” did not give her mother, but “Mary” gave a “book” to her mother. “Book” is the name of the direct recipient of the act of giving—the direct object; while “mother” is the name of the indirect recipient of the action—the indirect object.

In the sentence, “Mary works for the society,” “society” is the name of the indirect recipient of the action expressed by “works.”

“The “indirect object” is called by some grammarians the “dative objective,” from the fact that the “verbs of giving” in the Latin language, take the “dative case” meaning the person “to or for” which a thing is given or done. The “dative case” of the Latin corresponds to the “indirect object,” or the “dative object” of the English language.

NOTE.—Much difficulty is encountered by young students in discriminating between the “indirect object” and the “adverb of purpose” when “for” is used to show the relation between the “related idea” and the idea of action which the indirect object limits.

In the sentence, “I wrote a message for my sister.” “sister” is the “indirect object” when it means “I

wrote a letter instead of my sister"—that she might not have to write it. In another meaning, the phrase "for my sister" is an adjective element.

In the sentence, "I wrote a letter to my sister," "to my sister" is an adjective phrase element resulting from the contraction of the clause "which was addressed to my sister."

In the sentence, "I sent a letter to my sister," "to my sister" is a pure adverb of place, telling where I sent my letter.

In the sentence, "I gave my sister a letter," "sister" is a purely "dative" or "indirect" object; it is the name of the indirect recipient of the act of giving.

NOTE.—The shades of meaning expressed in the above sentences are not easily discerned by the average young student. Hence, some grammarians prefer to class all forms of the "indirect object," except those that follow the pure verbs of giving as adverbial elements. Nevertheless they are not purely adverbial, and careful discrimination here will conduce to greater ability on the student's part to penetrate into and grasp the meaning of the subtle expressions of our abler writers.

EXERCISE I.—Analyze according to the model, the following sentences:—

1. He giveth rain to the parched ground.
2. They offered Cæsar the crown.
3. John spoke to me.
4. He giveth his beloved sleep.
5. The children gave me a beautiful bouquet.
6. The three witches gave Macbeth a delusive answer.
7. They paid the man his wages.
8. Dorcas gave clothing to the poor.
9. "Will he give him a stone?"
10. I gave the beggar some bread.

Model:—

“ You gave him a dollar.”

“ You ” is the subject; it is the expression of the fundamental idea of the judgment.

“ Gave him a dollar ” is the complex predicate; it is the expression of the complex attributive idea and the assertion of agreement between this complex idea and the fundamental idea.

“ Gave ” is the simple predicate; the idea of action in “ gave ” (giving) is limited by the idea expressed by “ him,” denoting the indirect recipient of the action—“ indirect object.” The idea of action in “ gave ” is further limited by the idea expressed by “ dollar,” denoting the direct recipient of the action—“ direct object.” The idea expressed by “ dollar ” is limited by the idea expressed by “ a,” denoting, in a general way, one.

In analysis, no word can limit another word. The relations to be studied exist between the ideas expressed by the words, and not between the words. The word is a form complete in itself. The idea is a mind-impulse, or impression that may be limited, qualified, or intensified by the close relation of other mind-impulses.

Teachers as well as students are prone to deal alone with the word, the form, and suffer themselves to lose sight of the meaning, the content; and therefore our work in analysis, which should be a study of relations existing between ideas, resolves itself into a mere formality, and speedily becomes mechanical, and is thus robbed of the magnificent possibility of culture it presents, by losing sight of the content, in an idle struggle with the forms of our language.

Some verbs otherwise intransitive may take the indirect object.

EXERCISE II.—Write ten sentences to illustrate the “indirect object,” selecting for part of the list some other verbs than the pure “verbs of giving”—“dative verbs.”

LESSON XV.

THE ADVERBIAL OBJECT.

Still another kind of element in the English language deserves special attention. This element may be called the “objective adverb,” or the “adverbial object.”

This element has to the idea of action, which it limits, scarcely the relation of a real object. It is closely allied to the ordinary adverbial element. Still it has a peculiar form and significance. Probably the best reason for calling it “objective” at all is, that it corresponds to that use of the “accusative” case (objective) in the Latin, to denote “duration of time” and “extent of space.”

In the sentence, “He walked a mile,” “a mile” is the expression of the idea of distance—“extent of space”—he walked. “Mile” may, in a very doubtful sense, denote the recipient of the action expressed in “walked” (walking), and thus lay claim to the “objective case.”

In the sentence, “The President receives fifty thousand dollars a year,” “a year” is the expression of the idea of the “duration of time” of the service for which the President receives fifty thousand dollars. The idea of an “objective” in any sense, is still less easily discernable in this sentence. Yet it is of that group of elements that are called, and should be called, the “adverbial object.”

In the sentence, “I gave him a dollar a bushel for

his wheat," "a bushel" is the expression of the idea of "extent of space"—the measure of a dollar's worth of wheat. This element is called the "adverbial object."

The foregoing examples, however, are not purely adverbial, nor are they purely objective. They occupy the middle ground between the "indirect object" and the purely adverbial element. The old Latin writers gave the basic noun of such elements the accusative case form. And this may be the best reason for using the term "objective" to designate them. They form a peculiar group, and therefore should have a designation separate from the pure objectives, as well as also from the pure adverbials. We believe that this notion justifies the name "adverbial object."

EXERCISE I.—Analyze according to the model, the following sentences:—

1. Raleigh was a prisoner twelve years.
2. Congressmen receive five thousand dollars a year.
3. I paid the seamstress a dollar a spool.
4. The wheat cost a dollar a bushel.
5. James receives a dollar a day.

Model:—

"Jacob served Laban seven years."

"Jacob" is the subject; it is the expression of the fundamental idea.

"Served Laban seven years" is the complex predicate; it is the expression of the complex attributive idea, together with the mind-decision of agreement between this complex idea and the fundamental idea.

"Served" is the simple predicate; the idea of action expressed by "served" (serving) is limited by the idea expressed by "Laban," denoting the person who was the direct recipient of the action—"direct object."

The idea of action expressed by "served" is further limited by the idea expressed by "seven years," denoting the "duration of time" of the service—"adverbial object."

EXERCISE II.—Illustrate the Adverbial Object with ten original sentences.

LESSON XVI.

THE APPOSITIVE ELEMENT.

The word "appositive" (Latin *ad*, to, and *pono*, to place, or put), means "applied to," or "placed near by." This name has been given to those nouns that are used to designate definitely the person or thing named, by telling the trade, calling, or profession, or some well known peculiarity, trait, or characteristic of the person or thing named.

Some grammarians happily call this element an "explanatory modifier."

In the sentence, "Peter the hermit resembles Peter the Apostle," "hermit" and "Apostle" clearly designate the two persons named by expressing the idea of the peculiar habit of the one, and the special endowment of the other. The appositive element simply expresses in a specific way what person or thing is meant by the noun to which it is apposed.

To call the appositive an "explanatory modifier" would necessitate giving it a special class name as a subordinate element in sentence-construction. Then it will not be "by apposition in the same case," as that would rank a subordinate element with an element to which it is subordinate.

The appositive noun is purely descriptive in its use. The expression, "John the blacksmith," unquestiona-

bly means "the blacksmith John," and no other "John."

The appositive lies, as an element, between the noun, in its plain use as a noun, and the descriptive adjective. The "case" of the appositive may or may not be noted, as the "case" does not designate the real relation of such nouns to the nouns to which they are apposed. If the "case" be noted at all, it is just as well to call it the "appositive case," for the relation is the really significant thing.

English grammarians speak of the "appositive" as being "by apposition in the same case" as the noun to which it is *apposed*. This, so far as we are able to determine, is based on no better foundation than that in the Latin, such nouns agree in case-form with the nouns with which they are so used. This means simply a subjection to form. Every Latin student knows, that we might call the Latin adjectives "appositives," and place them, "by apposition in the same case" for the same reason.

EXERCISE I.—Analyze the following sentences according to the model:—

1. Whittier, the Quaker Poet, wrote "Snow-bound."
2. Americans revere the name, "Washington."
3. Mohammed the prince became Mohammed the sultan.
4. Dickens, the novelist, visited America.
5. Raleigh, the courtier, became Elizabeth's favorite.

Model:—

"Lincoln, the martyred President, was once a rail-splitter."

"Lincoln, the martyred President," is the complex subject; it is the expression of the complex fundamental idea.

“Lincoln” is the simple subject. The idea expressed by “Lincoln” is limited by the complex appositive idea expressed by “the martyred President,” denoting what Lincoln is meant. “President” is the expression of the basic appositive idea. The idea expressed by “President” is limited by the idea expressed by “the,” and qualified by the idea expressed by “martyred.”

(The analysis of the remaining part of the sentence has already been learned in connection with the study of the Nominative Attribute.)

EXERCISE II.—Illustrate the Appositive Element with ten original sentences.

LESSON XVII.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

The word “syntax” comes from two Greek words—*syn*, together, and *tasso*, to arrange.

The word “composition” comes from two Latin words—*com*, from *cum*, through *con*, together, and *pono*, to place.

EXERCISE I.—Write ten sentences to illustrate the nominative attribute.

EXERCISE II.—Write ten sentences to illustrate the direct object.

EXERCISE III.—Write ten sentences to illustrate the double object.

EXERCISE IV.—Write ten sentences to illustrate the indirect object.

EXERCISE V.—Write ten sentences to illustrate the adverbial object.

EXERCISE VI.—Write ten sentences to illustrate the appositive element.

NOTE.—Try in the above exercises to make your sentences the expression of more than a trifling thought. Try to call up from your knowledge of history or literature some thought worth expressing, to illustrate your point. Thus the exercise may be made more valuable.

LESSON XVIII.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

The word “analysis” comes from two Greek words—*ana*, again, and *lyso*, or *luso*, to unbind, to loose, to set free. Hence the old definition, “Analysis is the separation of a sentence into its parts.” However, the name “analysis” but poorly designates the real process of analysis in the best sense.

The study of the meaning of words and their relations to each other in the sentence, is what should be comprehended in the term. Scarcely can we see how in any way, we “separate the sentence into its parts.”

Analyze the following sentences according to the models already learned :—

1. They pronounce him a traitor.
2. The house was neatly furnished.
3. This bud will become a beautiful flower.
4. The spring freshets were very disastrous.
5. Summer brings us many pleasures.
6. “Evil communications corrupt good manners.”
7. The soldier considered himself a good marksman.
8. The pupils obeyed the teacher’s directions.
9. Robert Burns, the poet, was a Scotchman.
10. “Each morning sees some task begin.”
11. The news-boy sold me a paper.
12. Gladly the martyr laid down his life.
13. The December snows hide the fallen leaves.
14. The bitter blasts chill the delicate flowers.
15. A noble purpose keeps us happy.

16. They made the battlefield gory.
17. Seeing is believing.
18. To see is to believe.
19. Man is human.
20. To forgive is divine.

NOTE.—In the third sentence, “will” is a tense auxiliary. It is used to assist in expressing the time, with reference to the present, of the development of the idea expressed by the subject noun into the condition expressed by the nominative attribute.

NOTE.—The infinitives in the 17th, 18th, and 20th sentences are pure nouns so far as their relation to the other parts of the sentence is concerned. They should be disposed of as mere nouns, and only the peculiarity of the ideas expressed by them needs special notice. This is the key to the disposition of all infinitives when used as pure nouns.

LESSON XIX.

SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

THE ADJECTIVE WORD-ELEMENT.

The Adjective Word-element has already received some attention. The nature of the relations of the idea it expresses to the nouns with which it is used is so close that no intervening word is necessary by which to express it.

The structure of these word-elements, and the nature of the ideas expressed by them, we wish now to notice briefly.

When the idea expressed by a noun is qualified, or limited, or intensified by the idea expressed by a single adjective, we call that adjective a “Simple Adjective Word-element,” because it is the expression of a simple, or single qualifying, limiting, or intensifying idea; as “sweet apples,” “other men,” “heavy thunder,” etc. When the qualifying, limiting, or intensifying idea expressed by an adjective is

itself limited or intensified by some other idea subordinate to it, we call the expression of this complex idea a "Complex Adjective Word-element." The basic idea is modified by another idea, or other ideas, subordinate to the basic idea; as "very cold weather," "a purely American production," etc.

When two or more ideas are used co-relatively and co-joined to qualify or limit or intensify the idea expressed by the noun, the words used to express such co-joined ideas form a "Compound Adjective Word-element," because they are the expression of a compound qualifying, limiting, or intensifying idea; as, "a sad and lonely hour," "a drunken and savage crew."

EXERCISE I.—Illustrate the "Complex Adjective Word-element with five original sentences."

EXERCISE II.—Illustrate the "Compound Adjective Word-element" with five original sentences.

EXERCISE III.—Analyze the following sentences:

1. A fearfully destructive storm visited our city recently.
2. His masterly effort was very highly praised.
3. The dismasted and storm-tossed bark drifted slowly shore-ward.
4. That young man is a very poor student.
5. Very highly enjoyable entertainment was provided.

LESSON XX.

SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.—Continued.

THE ADVEBIAL WORD-ELEMENT.

As in the case of the adjective, the Adverbial Word-element is "simple," when it is the expression of a simple, or single qualifying, limiting, or intensifying

idea ; as, “singing sweetly.” It is complex, when it is the expression of an idea that is limited or intensified by an idea or ideas subordinate to it, as expressed by another word, or words ; as “singing very sweetly.” It is compound, when it is the expression of two or more correlative and co-joined ideas ; as, “singing softly and sweetly.”

In the first case, the element is a “Simple Adverbial Word-element ; in the second case, the element is a Complex Adverbial Word-element ; in the third case case, the element is a Compound Adverbial Word-element.

The Objective and also the Appositive elements are, from their structure, named in the same way.

Objective Word-elements are :

1. Simple Objective Word-elements.
2. Complex Objective Word-elements.
3. Compound Objective Word-elements.

Appositive Word-elements are :

1. Simple Appositive Word-elements.
2. Complex Appositive Word-elements.
3. Compound Appositive Word-elements.

On the whole, any word-element is :

1. Simple, when standing alone.
2. Complex, when the idea it expresses is limited, qualified, or intensified, by an idea, or ideas, or thoughts, expressed by a word or words, phrase, or clause, subordinate and subjoined, and
3. Compound, when such words are the expression of two or more ideas used co-ordinately and co-joined.

EXERCISE I.—Illustrate the “Complex Adverbial Word-element” by five original sentences.

EXERCISE II.—Illustrate the “Compound Adverbial Word-element” by five original sentences.

EXERCISE III.—Analyze the following sentences :

1. Slowly and sadly they laid him down.
2. A very beautiful day followed the defeat.
3. Mary sings very sweetly.
4. The brakeman was very severely hurt.
5. His pulse was beating rather feebly.
6. You eat entirely too rapidly.
7. You are entirely too careless.
8. Others are found quite equally fickle.
9. Peaches so large and luscious are quite rare.
10. The winter was extremely cold.

LESSON XXI.

SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.—Continued.

THE PHRASE ELEMENT—ITS NATURE.

In the study of the English language, it is customary to call the “preposition and its object” (*why its “object” we cannot tell*) a “Phrase Element.” In this discussion, we shall notice the nature and the structure of the “Phrase Element.”

In the expression, “The verdure of spring,” the idea expressed by “spring” limits the idea expressed by “verdure,” by designating the season. “Spring verdure” shows this limitation better. “Spring” is the expression of the limiting idea, in the first expression, and “of” is, supposedly, the expression of the relation of the idea expressed by “spring” to the idea expressed by “verdure.” This relation is somewhat like the relation of possession— a genitive relation.

In the expression, “The clock on the shelf,” a relation exists between the idea expressed by “shelf” and that expressed by “clock.” While “on” is the expression of that relation, a relation of place.

The Prepositoins (Latin *pre*, before, and *pono*, to place) on, in, into, by, up, upon, from, under, etc., are used to express the idea of the relation of place, etc., existing between ideas of actions and things.

In adjective-phrase elements, the preposition "of" is generally used to express the idea of the relation existing between the limiting idea and the idea limited. "Of" is usually the expression of a genitive relation, though the relation is sometimes far-fetched.

In adverbial phrase elements, the prepositions already adduced along with others, are used to express the relation existing between the limiting idea, and the idea so limited. The expression of this limiting idea together with the expression of the relation of this limiting idea to the idea so limited, constitutes a "phrase element," either adjective or adverbial.

Definition.—**A Phrase** is the expression of a related idea (simple, complex, or compound) together with the expression of the relation or implication of the relation of this idea to some other element of the thought.

In the expression, "Standing by the river," "by the river" is a simple adverbial phrase element, "the river" is the expression of the complex related idea, and "by" is the expression of the relation of this idea to the idea expressed by "standing"—a relation of place.

EXERCISE I.—Write ten sentences using all the prepositions given above, and others, and study the relations expressed.

EXERCISE II.—Analyze the following sentences, disposing of the phrase elements as suggested above:—

1. Far nobler fields of triumph lie before us.

2. David, the sweet singer of Israel, was mighty in battle.

3. "The Angel of Death spread his wings to the blast."

4. Virginia, the martyr, was the daughter of Virginius, the soldier.

5. The army rushed into the town at daybreak.

6. Many bloody battles were fought in 1863.

7. My friend attended school at Harvard during the last year.

8. I walked with my friends along the shore.

9. King Canute sat by the seaside.

10. The Temple of the Jews was first built by King Solomon, at Jerusalem.

LESSON XXII.

SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS—Continued.

THE PHRASE-ELEMENT—ITS STRUCTURE.

We have seen that the structure of the word-element may be simple, or complex, or compound. In structure Phrase-elements are likewise:—

1. Simple when no idea expressed in the phrase is limited or qualified by an idea or ideas expressed in the form of another phrase, or by a subordinate related thought expressed by a clause element.

2. Complex, when some one or more of the ideas expressed by the phrase is limited or qualified by an idea or ideas expressed in the form of another phrase, or by a subordinate related thought expressed by a clause element.

3. Compound, when the same element of the thought is limited or qualified by two or more co-ordinate and

co-joined ideas expressed in the form of phrases; thus—

- a. Simple Phrase Element—"in the sunshine."
- b. Complex Phrase Element—"by the side of the river."
- c. Compound Phrase Element—"down the river and over the falls."

NOTE 1.—The foregoing classification of Phrase-elements is made with reference to the structure. All authorities on structural grammar are agreed that a word-element is complex if the idea expressed by it is limited or qualified by an idea expressed by some other word, or by a phrase, or a subordinate related thought expressed by a clause element.

Likewise they agree that a sentence is complex if some one or more ideas expressed in it is qualified, limited, or intensified by subordinate related thought expressed by a clause element. Now, the structure of a phrase is complex if some one or more of the ideas expressed in that phrase is limited or qualified by a subordinate related idea or ideas expressed in the form of another phrase, or by a subordinate related thought expressed by a clause.

NOTE 2.—A word-element is complex when the idea of which it is the expression is modified by the thought matter expressed in the form of a word-element, a phrase-element, or a clause-element.

A phrase-element is complex when any of the ideas expressed by it is modified by the thought-matter expressed in the form of a phrase-element, or a clause-element.

A clause-element is complex when any of the ideas expressed in it is modified by the thought matter expressed in the form of another clause-element.

Thus we see that any element is complex when it, or any part of it, is modified by the thought matter expressed in the form of an element of its own rank, in structure, or in the form of an element of a higher rank.

LESSON XXIII.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION AND ANALYSIS.

EXERCISE I.—Write five original sentences to illustrate the "simple phrase-element."

EXERCISE II.—Write five original sentences to illustrate the “complex phrase-element.”

EXERCISE III.—Write five sentences to illustrate the “compound phrase-element.”

EXERCISE IV.—Study and analyze the following sentences:—

1. Slowly and sadly they climb the distant mountain.

2. They read their doom in the setting sun.

3. We came at last to the bank of a beautiful stream.

4. “The toad, ugly and venomous,
Wears yet a precious jewel in his head.”

5. Childhood lives in the days of sunshine and of song.

6. Evening, a dusky damsel, walked the paths of the forest.

7. The roses diffuse their fragrance through the hall.

8. From the icebergs of the North comes a wintry blast.

9. The enemy of our souls throws many barriers into our way.

10. Every little incident of that joyous day was treasured in the memory of that poor child.

LESSON XXIV.

INFINITIVES.

An Infinitive is a word that is used to express an idea of action, being, or state. In its nature, it has not the power to make an assertion. The Infinitive expresses action without the limitation of the “person” or “number” of its subject.

According to their *uses*, Infinitives are classified as follows:

1. **Participial** when used to express an idea of action, being, or state, that qualifies some other idea expressed in the sentence; as, "the *howling* wind," "a *scorched* desert," etc.

2. **Substantive**, when used to name the idea of action, being or state, in an abstract sense, or to express an idea of action, being, or state, as a thing; as, "*To steal* is wrong," "*Swimming* is a good exercise," etc.

3. **Attributive**, when used to express a predicate attribute of its subject, whether its subject be nominative or objective; as, "Lying is *stealing*," "We saw him *fall*," "We heard her *singing*," etc.

Such words as are used to express the attributive nature of the verb are infinitives.

According to their *forms*, infinitives are classified as follows:

1. **Progressive**, the "ing-forms," to express the idea of continuance of action, being, or state; as, *running, singing, thinking*, etc.

2. **Perfect** the "ed-forms," and the "irregular forms," to express the idea of completed action, being, or state; as, *buried, enslaved, sung, hanged*, etc.

3. **Present**, the "root-forms," to express the mere idea of action, being, or state, by the present indicative form of the verb, which has at the same time no power to make an assertion; as, to *hear*, to *see*, to *read*, etc.

NOTE.—This disposition of the infinitive necessitates a change in the naming of the "principal parts" of the verb in conjugation. The old way is incorrect, to say the least. Every word in the English language that expresses ideas of action, being, or state, without the limitation of the person and number of its subject, is in reality an infinitive. There is no such thing as a

"perfect participle" as one of the "principle parts" of the verb. Such words as are usually so-called, are made participles, only by their use as an adjective or an adverb. In naming the principal parts of verbs, these forms should be called Infinitives; as, "Perfect Infinitives," "Root Infinitives," and "Ing-Infinitives." When the idea of this attributive nature of the verb is used to qualify some other idea expressed, the expression of such qualifying idea is a participle.

LESSON XXV.

INFINITIVES—PARTICIPLES.

A Participle (Latin, *pars*, part, and *capio*, to take) is the expression of the idea of the attributive nature of the verb, which idea is used to qualify the meaning of some other idea expressed.

In the sentence, "Standing water becomes stagnant," "standing" is the expression of the attributive nature of the verb "stand," and at the same time, it is the expression of an idea that qualifies the idea expressed by "water." In this sentence, "standing" is a participial used as a pure qualifying adjective, having a weak participial construction.

In the sentence, "The water standing in the pond is stagnant," "standing" is still a pure qualifying adjective, but now it has a much stronger participial construction, to the extent that the idea of action it expresses is limited as it might be in the attributive verb.

In both of these sentences, we have considered the nature and use of the "ing-infinitive" used as a participial. We have also to study the "root-infinitive" in its nature and use as a participial. This is usually called "infinitive" whatever may be its use.

In the sentence, "The way to learn is to study," "to learn" is the expression of an idea of action that

qualifies the idea expressed by "way." At the same time, it expresses the idea of action by the root-form of the verb "learn." In this sentence, "to learn" is a pure qualifying adjective in use, while in nature, it is a "root-participle" having a weak participial construction.

In the sentence, "The way to learn rapidly is to think deeply," "to learn" is the expression of an idea of action that qualifies the idea expressed by "way." At the same time, "to learn" partakes so strongly of the verbal nature as to be modified as a verb. It is in this case, a pure qualifying adjective having a strong participial construction.

As to structure, participial elements are:

1. Simple Participial Elements, when the basic element is unmodified.

2. Complex Participial Elements, when the basic element is modified.

3. Compound Participial Elements, when two or more such elements are used co-ordinately and co-joined.

NOTE.—When disposing of participial elements in analysis, whether they are the *ing*-forms, the *root*-forms, or the *ed*-, or the *irregular*-forms, with relation to the nouns or the verbs with which they occur, they are studied precisely as any other adjectives or adverbs. When on account of their stronger verbal nature, they are modified as verbs, their modifiers should be studied precisely as the modifiers of verbs are studied.

EXERCISE I.—Write ten sentences illustrating the use of the *ing*-infinitive and the *root*-infinitive as pure qualifying adjectives, having a *weak* participial construction.

EXERCISE II.—Write ten sentences illustrating the use of the *ing*-infinitive and the *root*-infinitive as pure

qualifying adjectives having a *strong* participial construction.

LESSON XXVI.

INFINITIVES—PARTICIPIAL—Continued.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

Analyze the following sentences according to former models and the foregoing suggestions, noting carefully the significance of the infinitive expressions:—

1. The great swaying balloon, ascending higher and higher, was lost in the clouds.

2. The nightingale, singing sweetly, entertained the benighted strangers.

3. Hearing an approaching footfall, I turned.

4. Quickly ascending to the top of the hill, we beheld the rising moon.

5. Resolutely facing the angry crowd, he quelled the rising tumult.

6. Some ragged children diligently gathering the cigar-stumps from the streets attracted our attention.

7. They were hungering waifs earning a bit of bread.

8. Singing merrily, the milk-maid tripped lightly across the greening meadows.

9. A million diamonds sparkling and glittering in the dazzling sunlight, bedecked the treetops on that winter morning.

10. The sun, arising quickly over the eastern ridge, chased the darkness before it pell-mell.

LESSON XXVII.

INFINITIVES—SUBSTANTIVE.

The name “gerund” is used by some grammarians to designate the “Substantive Infinitive;” “gerund”

being the Latin name for "verbal nouns" in some constructions in the Latin language.

It is our purpose in these lessons, to keep ourselves anchored always in the safe harbor of simplicity. Hence we give to the infinitive expressions used as nouns the name, "Substantive Infinitive." We believe that this name will not be in any way misleading.

The Substantive Infinitive may, in the English language, take the position of a noun in almost any of its several constructions. It is used to express an idea of action by merely naming it, so far as the other parts of the sentence are concerned.

With reference to:

1. The relation of the Substantive Infinitive to the other elements of the sentence, it is a pure noun, having the construction of a pure noun.

2. The relation of elements subordinate to itself, the Substantive Infinitive has a strong substantive construction, and may be modified as a noun, or it may be strong in its verbal nature, and so be modified as a verb.

The Infinitive is not a verb, as it has not the power to assert. It may be called, in a broad sense, a "verbal," but that is a useless designation when the real significance of it is known. It has the attributive nature, but not the assertive power, of the verb.

1. *Forms of the Substantive Infinitive.*—The Substantive Infinitives, like the Participial Infinitives, are of three, may be of four, forms, namely:

- a. The *ing*-forms.
- b. The *root*-forms.
- c. The *ed*-forms.
- d. The *irregular*-forms.

2. *Uses of the Substantive Infinitive.*—Substantive Infini-

tives are used in almost all the constructions in which nouns are used.

- a. As Subject of a sentence :
 1. Erring is human.
 2. To forgive is divine.
- b. As Nominative Attribute :
 1. Seeing is believing.
 2. To see is to believe.
- c. As Direct Object—
 1. I desire to learn.
 2. Boys enjoy cycling.
- d. As the expression of the related idea in a Phrase-element—
 1. "What went ye out (for) to see?"
 2. He strives for learning.
- e. As an Appositive Element—
 1. It is easy to master the lesson.
 2. It is wise to study diligently.

NOTE.—*The above is not exhaustive, but it will serve as a starting-point from which teacher and pupil may work out further details of the subject.*

LESSON XXVIII.

INFINITIVES—ATTRIBUTIVE.

The Attributive Infinitive is an infinitive used to express some attribute of action, being, or state, of its subject.

There are two uses of the Attributive Infinitive, namely—

1. To express the simple attributive element of a judgment; as—
 - a. Mary is reciting.
 - b. To retreat is to surrender.
 - c. Learning is growing intellectually.

2. To express attributes of action, being, or state, of the subject objective, as in the case of the "Infinitive Attribute" in the "double object" already studied ; as—

- a. We heard her singing.
- b. The teacher compelled him to study.
- c. The fox thought the lion sleeping.

EXERCISE I.—Write ten sentences to illustrate the use of the Attributive Infinitive as Nominative Attribute.

EXERCISE II.—Write ten sentences to illustrate the use of the Attributive Infinitive as Objective Attribute.

LESSON XXIX.

INFINITIVES—ANALYSIS.

Analyze the following sentences, giving special attention to the Infinitives, noting whether they be Participial, Substantive, or Attributive:—

1. The falling rain was drenching the belated travelers.
2. To deceive in the means is to be shamed in the end.
3. They drank their flagons of home-brewed ale.
4. We saw the drunken wretch reeling into the gutter.
5. The way to meet the demands of the age is to educate the hand, the head and the heart of the masses.
6. Trained nurses tenderly attended the wounded and dying soldiers.
7. Is this Christian civilization destined to die at the hand of criminal sloth ?
8. They sank before the murderous foe, fighting to the last.

9. Singing is a very pleasing and refining exercise.
10. The sceptered and mitred Pope wielded almost universal sway.

LESSON XXX.

INFINITIVES—ANALYSIS.

Analyze the following sentences, making a careful study of the peculiar infinitive expressions used:—

1. Standing on the bridge, we saw the trembling shadows in the water below us.
2. For me to decide the question is impossible.
3. It is impossible for me to decide the question.
4. The children longed for father to come home.
5. Streaks of flame seemed to shoot across the sky.
6. The soldier saw the ship's guns battering and crumbling the forts guarding the harbor.
7. A glancing shell struck the mutilated ship.
8. They thought to retreat to be to surrender.
9. The soldiers thought retreating disgraceful.
10. For me to do willingly what you ask, is in every way impossible.

LESSON XXXI.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

1. She promised to sing at our coming concert.
2. Many students attending the seminary were ordained to preach the Gospel.
3. Doing a great deal often demands a great sacrifice.
4. We have the following plan to offer.
5. Busily engaged in pluming its feathers, the bird did not see the approaching danger.
6. The horse is eager to start.

7. The traveler threw himself upon the grass to rest.
8. To act is to live.
9. To cease to act is to die.
10. Hope is a cable anchoring us to Heaven.
11. "Hope deferred maketh the heart sick."
12. April, a weeping maiden, came drenching the earth with her tears.
13. The tears of weeping April awoke the sleeping flowers.
14. By diving many fathoms deep, they recovered the sunken treasure.
15. Having crossed the Rubicon, Cæsar hastened to reach Rome.
16. He came walking and leaping and praising God.
17. To give just credit always, is to exercise just judgment.
18. Loving God is obeying His whole will.
19. We prove our love by obeying His commandments.
20. The sounding of the trumpet was the signal for attacking the enemy.

LESSON XXXII.

THE SENTENCE—CLASSIFICATION.

According to their nature, sentences are classified as follows:—

1. Declarative, when the sentence is the expression of positive agreement or disagreement between the fundamental and the attributive ideas, or elements of the thought.
2. Interrogative, when the sentence is the expression of an inquiry concerning the agreement or the disagree-

ment existing between the fundamental and the attributive elements of the thought.

3. Imperative, when the sentence is the expression of a desire, or a determination of the speaker to secure the performance of an act.

4. Exclamative, when the sentence is the expression of enthusiastic appreciation of the agreement between the fundamental and the attributive elements of the thought.

NOTE.—It is difficult indeed to discover a parallel between the nature of the Imperative sentence, and that of the Declarative sentence. Hidden away among the relics of centuries past, perhaps lies the parallel. But at this day, the Imperative Sentence stands alone in our language, a distinct monument of what ages of growth and change may produce. Our discussions of the nature of thought and expression shrink before this monument, and we approach it now only in conjecture.

May it not be that the peculiar form and nature of the Imperative Sentence had its origin somewhat as follows:

In the sentence, "You sing sweetly to me," we understand that the words are mildly uttered, a mere statement of a fact. Now emphasize the subject "you," slightly. Note that the desire that "you sing" is now becoming manifest. Now omit the tender word, "sweetly," and at the same time retain the former emphasis on the subject "you." Note now the greater growth of the desire. Now, growing more vehement in the wish, drop the courteous "you," the subject, and the tender word "sweetly," and note the effect; the expression is now robbed of the tenderness and the courtesy, and has resolved itself into an imperious request. Now drop "to me," the softening fall in the original expression. Note now, that the former courteous and tender expression of a mere wish has been transformed by the gradually increasing degree

of urgency into an unqualified command, and that, instead of the sentence, "You sing sweetly to me," there now stands only the naked verb, "Sing."

Such is the nature of the Imperative Sentence, and such is the probable process through which it has passed since the beginning of language. And such is the nature of the verb in the Imperative Mode.

In the form, "You sing sweetly to me," it is quite easy to see that the nature of the Imperative Sentence was originally identical with that of the sentences of the other three classes. The Imperative Mode of the verb, and the Imperative Sentence are probably growths that are the outcome of the multitudinous necessities that have confronted man in all the various stages of his intellectual and linguistic development. In the English language, the Imperative Verb is used in only one "Person"—the "second person." It is easy and correct, then, to assume that the subject is always the personal pronoun, singular or plural—"ye," or "you," or "thou," or possibly, sometimes, the antecedent of "thou," or "you" when denoting a single individual.

EXERCISE I.—Compose five Declarative Sentences.

EXERCISE II.—Compose five Interrogative Sentences.

EXERCISE III.—Compose five Imperative Sentences.

EXERCISE IV.—Compose five Exclamative Sentences.

Suggestion.—Let the pupil so thoroughly familiarize himself with the above discussion of the Imperative Sentence, that he may describe easily and correctly the probable process by which the "command" was evolved. Let other verbs and other sentences be used to illustrate.

LESSON XXXIII.

THE SENTENCE—CLASSIFICATION—Continued.

According to their structure, sentences are classified as follows:

1. Simple, when the sentence is the expression of a single judgment, no element of which is qualified or limited by a subordinate related judgment.

2. Complex, when the sentence is the expression of a judgment some element of which is qualified or limited by one or more subordinate related judgments.

3. Compound, when the sentence is the expression of two or more associated judgments used correlative-ly and co-joined.

There is some difference of opinion as to the proper disposition of a sentence, in this classification, which contains the substantive clause, as the expression of the fundamental or the attributive element of the judgment. On this point, we have this to say: With reference to the relation existing between the noun clause used as Subject or as Attribute Complement, and the other basic element of the sentence, the clause is a pure substantive—a mere noun, a unit in meaning. It requires the whole clause to constitute this unit of the element. Hence, the noun clause used as Subject, or as Nominative Attribute, is a mere noun, and does not justify us in calling the sentence containing it a “Complex Sentence.”

The “Direct Object” is a limiting element. Hence, when the noun clause is used as Direct Object, the sentence is complex.

The Appositive is a limiting element. Hence, when the noun clause is used as an Appositive, the sentence is complex.

Adjectives and adverbs are qualifying or limiting elements. Hence, when a clause is used as an adjective or as an adverb, the sentence is complex.

EXERCISE I.—Write five sentences containing the noun clause, and state whether they are simple or complex.

EXERCISE II.—Write five Complex Sentences,

EXERCISE III.—Write five Compound Sentences.

NOTE.—Study the words you have used to express the relation between the principal and the related clauses in the second list.

NOTE.—Study the words you used to join the members of the compound sentences in the third list.

LESSON XXXIV.

CONNECTIVES.

Connectives are those words used to express the relations existing between different ideas, between ideas and judgments, or between related judgments.

Connectives are classified as follows:

1. Co-ordinate Connectives, when they are such as express relations between elements of equal rank in the structure of the sentence. Examples: and, or, nor, etc.

Co-ordinate Connectives are sub-classed as follows:

a. Copulative, when used to express the idea of the aggregation of ideas or judgments of equal rank in structure, and co-ordinately used.

Examples: and, also, etc.

b. Adversative, when used to express the idea that contrary conditions exist between the co-ordinately-used ideas or judgments.

Examples: but, except, etc.

- c. Comparative, when used to express the idea of a comparison between the co-ordinately-used ideas or judgments.

Examples: as many as, as far as, as long as, etc.

- d. Alternative, when used to express the idea of a choice or preference between the co-ordinately-used ideas or judgments used disjunctively.

Examples: or, nor, etc.

Alternative Connectives may be sub-classed as follows:

- a. As to form—

1. Simple, as “or,” “nor.”
2. Compound, as “either—or,” neither—nor.

- b. As to nature—

1. Positive, as “or,” “either—or.”
2. Negative, as “nor,” “neither—nor.”

2. Subordinate Connectives, when they are such as are used to express relations between elements of unequal rank in structure.

Subordinate Connectives may be sub-classed as follows:

- a. **Conditional**, when used to express the relation between a subordinate related judgment and the idea that this subordinate related judgment limits, when this related judgment is made the condition upon which the principal judgment becomes a fixed fact.

Examples: if, tho, unless, etc.

- b. **Relative Pronouns**, which are used to express the relation of the subordinate judgment expressed by the adjective clause to the idea limited or qualified by this related judgment.

Examples : who, which, etc.

- c. **Relative Adverbs**, which are adverbs used to express the relation existing between a subordinate related judgment and the idea expressed by a noun, which idea the subordinate judgment limits.

Examples : when, where, etc.

- d. **Conjunctive Adverbs**, which are used to express the relation existing between a subordinate related judgment, and some idea of action, being, or state, which the subordinate judgment limits by denoting the time, place, etc., of the action, etc.

Examples : then, when, where, while, etc.

- e. **Prepositions**, which are used to express the relation existing between a subordinate related idea and the idea which this subordinate idea limits.

Examples : by, from, upon, in, within, into, etc.

EXERCISE I.—Write three sentences using Co-ordinate Connectives. Note the nature of the relation they express.

EXERCISE II.—Write three Complex Sentences using Conditional Connectives.

EXERCISE III.—Write three Complex Sentences using Relative Pronouns.

EXERCISE IV.—Write three Complex Sentences using Relative Adverbs.

EXERCISE V.—Write three sentences using Prepositions.

LESSON XXXV.

DIRECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

In the preceding lessons, the simple sentence has been analyzed, essentially in all its various forms.

1. The sentence must first be read, and then classified, first as to structure, and second, as to nature; thus:—

“The young man who wills to mount the heights will always find a way.”

“This is a complex declarative sentence.”

2. Next, read the subject part, and then the predicate part of the sentence; thus:

“The young man who wills to mount the heights” is the complex subject; it is the expression of the complex fundamental idea.

3. Next read the simple subject, then dispose of its modifiers.

4. Next read the complex predicate. Then read the simple predicate, and then dispose of its modifiers.

5. Modifiers of a noun, or any substantive, are always simple, complex, or compound, in structure; and they are always adjective or appositive in nature; and they are always a word, or a phrase, or a clause, in form. So, as elements, they may be disposed of as simple, complex, or compound, adjective or appositive word, phrase, or clause elements. They modify by qualifying or limiting.

6. Modifiers of verbs are simple, complex, or compound, adverbial or objective, word, phrase, or clause elements.

a. Objective elements limit by denoting the direct, or the indirect, recipient of the action, or by denoting either “duration of time” or “extent of space.”

b. Adverbial elements qualify by denoting the manner of the action, or they limit the action by denoting the time, place, cause, etc., of the action, or they intensify by denoting a

greater or a lesser degree of the quality of a substance or an action.

7. In the analysis of compound sentences, let the sentence be read and classified. Then let the co-ordinate members of the compound sentence be analyzed separately.

8. Study the exact relations expressed by all connectives.

NOTE.—Before beginning the general exercises in analysis to follow, let all the foregoing directions be carefully committed and understood.

LESSON XXXVI.

SOME FRAGMENTS.

The student may encounter some difficulty in disposing of certain elements not yet more than merely touched upon in our course in analysis. We deem it well to call attention to a few of these elements.

1. Tense Auxiliaries.

In the sentence, "Charles had recited," "had" is an auxiliary word introduced as a means of assisting in the fixing of the time of the action with reference to the present time; "had" is, therefore, a tense auxiliary.

In the sentence, "I shall discharge my duty," "shall" is an auxiliary word, introduced as a means of assisting in the fixing of the time of the action, with reference to the present time; "shall" is, therefore, a tense auxiliary.

And so "shall" and "will" are used with the perfect infinitive to denote the "future perfect" tense; "have," "has," or "hast" with the perfect infinitive to denote the "present perfect" tense; and "had" or "hadst" with the perfect infinitive to denote the "past-perfect" or plu-perfect, tense.

2. Mode Auxiliaries.

In the sentence, "You may return," "may" is used to indicate permission granted by the speaker to the person addressed. Such a word introduced into the sentence modifies the usual mode of assertion, and hence is called a "Mode Auxiliary."

Such words as *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *ought*, (*owe*), *should*, and *would*, used to express power, possibility, will, permission, probability, or obligation to perform certain actions, are called mode auxiliaries.

It is difficult to determine why such words as those of the above list should be called "verbs." There is little of the nature of a verb in them. They are merely auxiliaries. They modify the assertion, and rob the verb of the power of direct assertion, but they are in a doubtful sense verbs. In fact they are more nearly related to adverbs; for they do express some notion of the time, etc., of the action.

3. Introductory words.

The sentence, "There are no idlers here" might be, "Here are no idlers." But usage, reflective, or accidental, has come to prefer the first form, and so we have a peculiar use of the word "there." This use was probably purely adverbial. Now it has weakened into an introductory expression, enabling us to put the subject after the verb, and such is its synthetic connection with the sentence.

In the sentence, "That he is right, is plainly evident," "that," naturally endowed with a strong demonstrative significance, has faded into a weak introductory word. "He is right, is plainly evident" is the expression of the same thought stripped of the introductory formality. But usage, sovereign of his time, prefers the former expression.

4. Exclamatives.

In the sentence, "Hurrah! we have won!" "hurrah" signifies an explosion of enthusiasm on the part of the speaker. Such expressions are properly called "Exclamatives."

Such words as *hurrah*, *pooh*, *alas*, *avaunt*, etc., are full of significance, and deserve a close study. They have no synthetic connection with the rest of the sentence with which they occur, tho they accompany it with much meaning. In analysis, they may be called "Exclamatives." They do not enter as elements into the sentence.

In the sentence, "He is taller than I," "than I" constitutes the introduction of the fundamental idea of the second member of the compound sentence expressing a comparison. It may be well, in such cases, to complete the expression of the second member, thus—"than I am tall," as the real standard of comparison lies in the second member. However, let this be done only that the standard and the comparison may be discerned.

NOTE.—In the foregoing remarks, we have sought to stir up the mind of the student, to arouse him and cause him to look upon the language that he studies. This treatment of "fragments" is not in any sense exhaustive, yet it is hoped that the above may serve to put the student upon the lookout for the many peculiarities and irregularities found in the body of the English tongue.

LESSON XXXVII.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

1. "Big words do not smite like war-clubs."
2. "Boastful breath is not a bow-string."
3. "Taunts are not so sharp as arrows."
4. "Deeds are better things than words are."

5. "In the land of the Dakotahs
Lives the arrow-maker's daughter."
6. "At the feet of Laughing Water
Hiawatha laid his burden."
7. "Through their thoughts they heard a footstep,
Heard a rustling in the branches,
And with glowing cheeks and forehead,
With the deer on his shoulders,
Suddenly from out the woodlands,
Hiawatha stood before them."
8. "All around the happy village
Stood the maize fields, green and shining,
Waved the green plumes of Mondamin,
Waved his soft and sunny tresses,
Filling all the land with plenty."

LESSON XXXVIII.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

1. "In the old colony days, in Plymouth, the land of
the Pilgrims,
To and fro in a room of his simple and primitive
dwelling,
Clad in doublet and hose, and boots of Cordovan
leather,
Strode with a martial air, Miles Standish, the Puritan
Captain.
2. "Long at the window he stood, and wistfully
looked at the landscape."
3. "Let not him that putteth his hand to the plow
look backwards,
Though the ploughshare cut through the flowers of
life to the fountains."

4. "If the great Captain of Plymouth is so very eager
to wed me,
Why does he not come himself, and take the trouble
to woo me?"
5. "Forth from the curtain of clouds, from the tent of
purple and scarlet,
Issued the sun, the great High-Priest, in his garments
resplendent."
6. "Over his clouded eyes there had passed at times an
expression
Softening the gloom and revealing the warm heart
hidden beneath them,
As when across the sky the driving rack of the rain-
cloud
Grows for a moment thin, and reveals the sun by its
brightness."
7. "Then he said with a smile, 'I should have remem-
bered the adage—
'If you would be well served, you must serve your-
self'."

LESSON XXXIX.

EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS.

1. "All his thoughts were congealed into lines on his
face, as the vapors
Freeze in fantastic shapes on the window-panes in
winter."
2. "Silently one by one, in the infinite meadows of
heaven,
Blossomed the lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the
Angels."
3. "Life had long been astir in the village, and clam-
orous labor

Knocked with its hundred hands at the golden gate of the morning."

4. "Plaintive at first were the tones and sad, then soaring to madness

Seemed they to follow or guide the revels of frenzied Bacchantes."

5. "Single notes were then heard, in sorrowful, low lamentation;

Till, having gathered them all, he flung them abroad in derision,

As when, after a storm, a gust of wind, through the tree-tops,

Shakes down the rattling rain in a crystal shower on the branches."

6. "But on Evangeline's heart fell his words as in winter the snowflakes

Fall into some lone nest from which the birds have departed."

7. "Gleams of celestial light encircle her forehead with splendor,

Such as the artists paint o'er the brows of saints and apostles,

Or such as hang by night o'er a city seen at a distance."

LESSON XL.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

1. "England yielded to the Danes and Northmen in the tenth and eleventh centuries, and was the receptacle into which all the mettle of that strenuous population was poured."

2. "There shall come a time, in later ages, when Ocean shall relax his claims, and a vast continent ap-

pear, and a pilot shall find new worlds, and Thule shall be no more earth's bounds."

3. "The discovery of America by Christopher Columbus is the greatest event in secular history."

4. "The splendid empire of Charles V. was erected upon the grave of liberty. The ancient stream of national freedom and human progress, through many of the fairest regions of the world, were emptied and lost in that enormous gulf."

5. "The Spaniards of the sixteenth century were indisputably the noblest nation of Europe; yet they had the Inquisition and Philip II."

6. "All the sober men that I was acquainted with, who were against the Parliament, used to say, 'The king had the better cause, but Parliament had the better men.'"

LESSON XLI.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

The Crusades of the Christian nations, intended to dislodge the "Infidel" out of Jerusalem, tho they failed in that object, had awakened Europe to new life. East and West were brought nearer together. Knights and soldiers and pilgrims brought home from new lands new thoughts and wider notions. Commerce with the East was extended. Maritime enterprise was stimulated. There was improvement in ships. The mariner's compass was discovered, and under its guidance longer voyages could safely be made. The invention of gunpowder had changed the character of war, and enlarged the scale on which it was waged. The recent conquests of the Turks were indirectly the cause of new life to Christendom. The Fall of Constantinople resulted in a great revival of

learning in Europe. Driven from the East, learned Greeks and Jews came to settle in Italy. Greek and Hebrew were again studied in Europe. The literature, the history, the poetry, the philosophy and arts, of old Greece and Rome were revived. And the result was, that a succession of poets, painters, sculptors, and historians sprang up in Christendom such as had not been known for centuries. Above all, the invention of printing had come just in time to spread whatever new ideas were afloat, with a rapidity never known before.—*Seebohm*.

GENERAL EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

A Suggestion.—With the various exercises in analysis already passed over, the pupil is probably prepared to proceed with the following without discussing all the minute details of the analysis of each selection. Time would so be wasted. The separation of the clauses and a careful study of their relations, and of the parts with which the pupil is less familiar, will, in our opinion, save much time, and yet, in no wise diminish the value of the exercise.

1. " We sped the time with stories old,
Wrought puzzle out, or riddles told."
2. " Who has not learned in hours of faith
The truth to flesh and sense unknown,
That Life is ever lord of Death,
And Love can never lose its own?"
3. "We turn to pages that they read,
Their written words we linger o'er,
But in the sun they cast no shade,
No voice is heard, no sign is made;
No step is on the conscious floor!

Yet Love will dream, and Faith will trust,
Since He who knows our needs is just,
That somehow, somewhere, meet we must."

4. "The cat's dark silhouette on the wall
A couchant tiger's seemed to fall."

5. "What matter how the night behaved?
What matter how the north-wind raved?
Blow high, blow low, not all its snow
Could quench our hearth-fire's ruddy glow."

6. "Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
As the swift seasons roll!
Leave thy low-vaulted past!

Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
Till thou at length art free,
Leaving thy out-grown shell by life's unresting sea."

7. "Wither, mid falling dew,
While glow the heavens with the last steps of
day
Far in the rosy depths dost thou pursue
Thy solitary way?"

8. "Musing beneath this legendary tree,
The years between furl off."

9. "'There he stood,' softly we repeat,
And lo! the statue shrined and still
In that gray minsterfront we call the Past,
Feels in its frozen veins the pulses thrill."

10. "Then it came to pass that pestilence fell on
the city,
Presaged by wondrous signs, and mostly by
flocks of wild pigeons,
Dark'ning the sun in their flight, with naught
in their craws but an acorn;

And, as the tides of the sea arise in the month
of September,
Flooding some silvery stream, till it spreads to
a lake in the meadow,
So death flooded life, and, o'erflowing its nat-
ural margin,
Spread to a brackish lake, the silver stream of
existence."

11. " Her lively looks a sprightly mind disclose,
Quick as her eyes, and as unfixed as those,
Favors to none, to all she smiles extends ;
Oft she regrets, but never once offends."
12. " Yet graceful ease, and sweetness void of pride,
Might hide her faults, if belles had faults to
hide ;
If to her share some female errors fall,
Look on her face and you'll forget them all."
13. " This world was once a fluid haze of light,
Till toward the centre set the starry tides,
And eddied into suns, that wheeling, cast the
planets."
14. " Knowledge is now no more a fountain sealed !
Drink deep until the habits of the slave,
The sins of emptiness, gossip, and spite and
slander die."
15. " Better not be at all
Than not be noble."
16. " This is the very painting of your fear ;
This is the air-drawn dagger which, you said,
Led you to Duncan. O, these flaws and starts,
Imposters to true fear, would well become
A woman's story at a Winter's fire,
Authorized by her grandam."

17. "I have lived long enough ; my way of life
Is fallen into the sere, the yellow leaf ;
And that which should accompany old age,
As honor, love, obedience, troops of friends
I must not look to have."
18. "Canst thou not minister to a mind diseased ;
Pluck from the memory a rooted sorrow ;
Raze out the written troubles of the brain ;
And with some sweet-oblivious antidote,
Cleanse the stuffed bosom of that perilous stuff
Which weighs upon the heart?"
19. "Frailty, thy name is woman."
20. "The friends thou hast, and their adoption tried,
Grapple them to thy soul with hoops of steel."
21. "What a piece of work is man ! how noble in reason !
how infinite in faculties ! in form and moving
how express and admirable ! in action, how like an
angel ! in apprehension, how like a god !"
22. "Give me that man
That is not passion's slave, and I will wear him
In my heart's core, ay, in my heart of hearts,
As I do thee."
23. "Must I relinquish it all," he cried with a wild
lamentation.
"Must I relinquish it all, the joy, the hope, the
illusion?
Was it for this I have loved, and waited, and
worshipped in silence?
Was it for this I have followed the flying feet
and the shadow
Over the wintry sea, to the desolate shores of
New England?"
—*Longfellow*—"Courtship of Miles Standish."

24. But as he warmed and glowed, in his simple
and eloquent language,
Quite forgetful of self, and full of the praise
of his rival,
Archly the maiden smiled, and, with eyes over-
running with laughter,
Said in a tremulous voice, "Why don't you
speak for yourself, John?"
—*Longfellow*—"Courtship of Miles Standish."

25. Then the Master,
With a gesture of command,
Waved his hand;
And at the word,
Loud and sudden there was heard,
All around them and below,
The sound of hammer, blow on blow,
Knocking away the shores and spurs—
And see! she stirs!
She starts—she moves—she seems to feel
The thrill of life along her keel,
And, spurning with her foot the ground,
With one exulting joyous bound,
She leaps into the ocean's arms.
—*Longfellow*—"Building of the Ship."

26. Thou, too, sail on, O Ship of State!
Sail on, O Union, strong and great!
Humanity with all its fears,
With all the hopes of future years,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate!
We know what Master laid thy keel,
What Workman wrought thy ribs of steel,
Who made each mast and sail and rope,
What anvils rang, what hammers beat,

In what a forge and what a heat
 Were shaped the anchors of thy hope!
 —*Longfellow*—"The Building of the Ship."

27. "I dare your pity or your scorn,
 With pride your own exceeding;
 I fling my heart into your lap
 Without one word of pleading."
 She looked up in his face of pain
 So archly, yet so tender:
 "And if I lend you mine," she said,
 "Will you forgive the lender?"
 —*Whittier*—"Among the Hills."

28. A strange delight,
 Blent with a thrill of fear, o'er mastered me,
 And, ere I knew, my flashing steps were set
 Within the rivulet's pebbly bed, and I
 Was rushing down the current. By my side
 Tripped one as beautiful as ever looked
 From white clouds in a dream; and, as I ran,
 She talked with musical voice and sweetly
 laughed.

—*Bryant*—"Sella."

29. Eva looked,
 And lo! a glorious hall, from whose high vault,
 Stripes of soft light, ruddy, and delicate green,
 And tender blue, flowed downward to the floor
 And far around, as if the ærial hosts
 That march on high by night, with beamy spears,
 And streaming banners, to that place had brought
 Their radiant flags to grace a festival.

—*Bryant*—"Little People of the Snow."

30. So Eva slept,
 But slept in death; for when the power of frost
 Locks up the motions of the living form,

The victim passes to the realm of Death
Through the dim porch of sleep.

—*Bryant*—"Little People of the Snow."

31. The stag at eve had drunk his fill,
Where danced the moon on Monan's rill,
And deep his midnight lair had made
In lone Glenartney's hazel shade;
But when the sun, his beacon red
Had kindled on Benvoirlick's head,
The deep-mouthed blood-hound's heavy bay
Resounded up the rocky way,
And faint, from farther distance borne,
We heard the clanging hoof and horn.

—*Scott*—"The Lady of the Lake."

32. As chief, who hears his warders call,
"To arms! the foemen storm the wall!"
The antlered monarch of the waste
Sprung from his heathery couch in haste;
But, ere his fleet career he took,
The dewdrops from his flanks he shook;
Like crested leader proud and high,
Tossed his beamed frontlet to the sky,
A moment gazed adown the dale,
A moment snuffed the tainted gale,
A moment listened to the cry,
That thickened as the chase drew nigh;
Then, as the headmost foes appeared,
With one brave bound the copse he cleared,
And stretching forward full and far,
Sought the wild heaths of Uam-Var.

—*Scott*—"The Lady of the Lake."

33. Soldier, rest! thy warfare o'er,
Sleep the sleep that knows not breaking;
Dream of battle-fields no more,

Days of danger, nights of waking.
In our isle's enchanted hall,
Hands unseen thy couch are strewing,
Fair strains of music fall.
Soldier, rest! thy warfare o'er,
Dream of fighting fields no more:
Sleep the sleep that knows not breaking,
Morn of toil, nor night of waking.

—*Scott*—"The Lady of the Lake."

34. At length, with Ellen in a grove
He seemed to walk and speak of love;
She listened with a blush and sigh,
His suit was warm, his hopes were high.
He sought her yielded hand to clasp—
And a cold gauntlet met his grasp:
The phantom's sex was changed and gone,
Upon its head a helmet shone;
Slowly enlarged to giant size,
With darkened cheek and threatening eyes,
The grisly visage, stern and hoar,
To Ellen still a likeness bore—
He woke, and, panting with affright,
Recalled the vision of the night.

—*Scott*—"The Lady of the Lake."

35. The bride kissed the goblet; the knight took it
up,
He quaffed off the wine, and he threw down the
cup,
She looked down to blush, and she looked up to
sigh,
With a smile on her lips, and a tear in her eye.
He took her soft hand, ere her mother could bar—
"Now tread we a measure," said young Lochin-
var.—*Scott*—"Lochinvar" in "Marmion."

36. One touch to her hand, and one word in her ear,
As they reached the hall door, and the charger
stood near;
So light to the croup the fair lady he swung,
So light to the saddle before her he sprung.
"She is won! We are gone, over bank, bush,
and scaur;
They'll have fleet steeds that follow," quoth
young Lochinvar.

—*Scott*—"Lochinvar" in "*Marmion*."

37. The train from out the castle drew,
But Marmion stopped to bid adieu;
"Though something I might plain," he said,
"Of cold respect to stranger guest,
Sent hither by your king's behest,
While in Tantallon's towers I staid,
Part we in friendship from your land,
And, noble earl, receive my hand."
But Douglas round him drew his cloak,
Folded his arms, and thus he spoke:
"My manors, halls, and bowers shall still
Be open at my sovereign's will,
To each one whom he lists, howe'er
Unmeet to be the owner's peer.
My castles are my king's alone,
From turret to foundation-stone—
The hand of Douglas is his own,
And never shall in friendship grasp
The hand of such as Marmion clasp."

—*Scott*—"Marmion."

38. Burned Marmion's swarthy cheek like fire,
And shook his very frame for ire,
And—"This to me?" he said—
"An 'twere not for thy hoary beard,

Such hand as Marmion's had not spared
To cleave the Douglas' head."

And first I tell thee, haughty peer,
He who does England's message here,
Although the meanest in her state,
May well, proud Angus, be thy mate ;
And Douglas, more I tell thee here,
Even in thy pitch of pride,
Here in thy hold, thy vassals near,
(Nay, never look upon your lord,
And lay your hands upon your sword),
I tell thee, thou art befied !
And if thou saidst I am not peer,
To any lord in Scotland here,
Lowland or Highland, far or near,
Lord Angus, thou hast lied !"

—*Scott*—"Marmion."

39. From the neighboring school
Come the boys,
With more than their wonted noise
And commotion ;
And down the wet streets,
Sail their mimic fleets,
Till the treacherous pool
Ingulf's them in its whirling
And turbulent ocean.

—*Longfellow*—"Rain in Summer."

40. They climb up into my turret,
O'er the arms and back of my chair,
If I try to escape, they surround me ;
They seem to be everywhere.
They almost devour me with kisses,
Their arms about me entwine,

Till I think of the Bishop of Bingen,
In his Mouse-tower on the Rhine!

Do you think, O blue-eyed banditti,
Because you have scaled the wall,
Such an old mustache as I am
Is not a match for you all?

I have you fast in my fortress,
And will not let you depart,
But put you down into the dungeon
In the round-tower of my heart.

—*Longfellow*—"Children's Hour."

41. The world was all before them where to choose
Their place of rest, and Providence their guide.
They, hand in hand, with wandering steps and
slow,
Through Eden took their solitary way.

—*Milton*—"Paradise Lost."

42. Milton, thou shouldst be living at this hour.
England hath need of thee. She is a fen
Of stagnant waters; altar, sword, and pen,
Fireside, the heroic wealth of hall and bower,
Have forfeited their ancient English dower
Of inward happiness. We are selfish men;
Oh! raise us up, return to us again;
And give us manners, virtue, freedom, power.
Thy soul was like a star, and dwelt apart;
Thou hadst a voice whose sound was like the sea,
Pure as the naked heavens—majestic, free;
So didst thou travel on life's common way
In cheerful godliness; and yet thy heart
The lowliest duties on herself didst lay.

—*Wordsworth*—"Sonnet to Milton."

43. Ae fond kiss and then we sever ;
 Ae farewell, alas, forever.
 Had we never loved sae kindly,
 Had we never loved sae blindly,
 Never met, or never parted,
 We had ne'er been broken-hearted.
—Burns—"To Nancy."
44. We look before and after,
 And pine for what is not ;
 Our sincerest laughter
 With some pain is fraught ;
 Our sweetest songs are those that tell of saddest
 thought.—*Shelley*—"The Skylark."
45. One day, nigh weary of the irksome way,
 From her unhastie beast she did alight,
 And on the grass her dainty limbs did lay
 In secret shadow, far from all men's sight ;
 From her fayre head her fillet she undight,
 And laid her stole aside. Her angel's face,
 As the great eye of heaven shyned bright,
 And made a sunshine in the shady place ;
 Did ever mortal eye behold such heavenly grace?
—*Spenser*—"Faery Queene."
46. Last noon beheld them full of lusty life ;
 Last eve, in beauty's circle proudly gay ;
 The midnight brought the signal sound of strife ;
 The morn, the marshalling in arms ; the day—
 Battle's magnificently stern array !
 The thunder clouds close o'er it, which, when
 rent,
 The earth is covered thick with other clay,
 Which her own clay shall cover, heapt and pent,
 Rider and horse, friend, foe, in one red burial
 blent.—*Byron*—"Battle of Waterloo."

47. To him, who, in the love of nature, holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language. For his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness and a smile
And eloquence of beauty; and she glides
Into his darker musings with a mild
And healing sympathy that steals away
Their sharpness ere he is aware.

—*Bryant*—"Thanatopsis."

48. Fitted for every use, like a great majestic
river,
Blending thy various streams, stately thou flow-
est along,
Bearing the white-winged ship of poesy over thy
bosom,
Laden with spices that come out of the tropical
isles,
Fancy's pleasuring yacht with its bright and flut-
tering pennons,
Logic's frigates of war, and the toil-worn barges
of trade.

—*Story*—"The English Language."

49. Thou hast the sharp, clean edge, and the down-
right blow of the Saxon,
Thou the majestic march and the stately pomp of
the Latin;
Thou the euphonious swell, the rhythmical roll of the
Greek;
Thine is the elegant suavity caught from sonorous
Italian;
Thine the chivalric obeisance, the courteous grace of
the Norman;
Thine the teutonic German's inborn guttural strength.

—*Story*—"The English Language."

50. Therefore it is that I praise thee, and never cease
from rejoicing,
Thinking that good stout English is mine and my an-
cestor's tongue ;
Give me its varying music, the flow of its free modula-
tion,
I will not covet the full roll of the glorious Greek,
Lucious and feeble Italian, Latin so formal and state-
ly,
French with its nasal lisp, nor German inverted and
harsh,
Not while our organ can speak with its many and
wonderful voices,
Play on the soft lute of love, blow the loud trumpet of
war,
Sing with the high sesquialtro, or, drawing its full
diapason
Shake all the air with the grand storm of its pedals
and stops.

—*Story*—"The English Language."

PART SECOND.

Outlines of the Parts of Speech.

I. THE NOUN.

I. DEFINITION.—**A Noun** (Latin, *nomen*) is a name.

II. CLASSIFICATION.—According to their uses, nouns are classified as, (1) Proper, (2) Common.

1. **A Proper Noun** is a particular name of a person, place, or thing; as, *John, London, Mars*, etc.

Rule.—Proper Nouns and their derivatives begin with a capital letter.

2. **A Common Noun** is a general name of persons, places, or things; as, *boy, city, sun*, etc.

Common Nouns are sub-classed as follows:

- a. Class Nouns, names that may be applied to any one of a class; as, *boy, man, horse*, etc.
- b. Abstract Nouns, names of qualities, actions, and all purely mental attributes; as, *sweetness, learning, joy*, etc.
- c. Collective Nouns, names that in the singular form denote aggregation, or collection; as, *jury, army*, etc.

III. **Properties.**—The Properties of nouns are Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

1. **Gender**, in English grammar, is that property of nouns by which the sex of the person or thing named is denoted.

There are, in reality, only two genders, but it is customary to distinguish both the fact of sex and the

lack of sex by a gender. Hence, English grammarians recognize four genders, as follows :

- a. Masculine Gender, which denotes that the person or thing named is of the male sex ; as, boy, man, etc.
- b. Feminine Gender, which denotes that the person or thing named is of the female sex ; as, girl, lioness, etc.
- c. Common Gender, which denotes that sex is possessed by the person or thing named, but that the sex is not distinguished ; as, baby, children, calf, etc.
- d. Neuter Gender, which denotes lack of sex, as in inanimate things ; as, iron, wood, etc.

2. **Person** is that property of nouns which shows whether the speaker, the person or thing addressed, or the thing spoken of, is meant.

There are three persons :

- a. First Person, which denotes the speaker.
- b. Second Person, which denotes the person or thing addressed.
- c. Third Person, which denotes the person or thing spoken of.

NOTE.—There is not much weight to “person” in nouns. The noun is so rarely and so questionably used in the first and the second persons, that there is little use of calling attention to this property in nouns. Pronouns, as will be seen, are more deeply affected by Person, and are strongly inflected to denote this property.

3. **Number** is that property of Nouns which designates whether one or more than one is meant.

There are two numbers :

- a. Singular Number is that form of the noun which denotes that one is meant.

- b. Plural Number is that form of the noun which denotes that more than one is meant.

4. **Case** is that property of nouns which denote their relation in sense to the other parts of the sentence in which they are used.

There are five cases, (a) Nominative, (b) Objective, (c) Appositive, (d) Adjective, or Possessive, and (e) Adverbial.

- a. The Nominative Case is the use of a noun to express the simple fundamental element, or the simple attributive element, of a judgment; as in the sentence, "Mary is a seamstress."
- b. The Objective Case is the use of a noun to express the idea of the direct, or the indirect, recipient of an act as expressed by a transitive verb in the active voice, etc.; as in the sentence, "Mary gave me a book."
- c. The Appositive Case is the use of a noun to explain or more clearly designate the person or thing named by another noun, by denoting some peculiar habit, characteristic, trade, or calling, etc., of the person or thing named by the latter; as in the sentence, "Hobson, the Naval Constructor, is a hero."
- d. The Adjective, or "Possessive" Case is that use of a noun with the possessive sign, or with the preposition "of," to denote ownership, authorship, origin, fitness, source, etc., of the person or thing designated by the noun with which it is used; as in the expressions, "Children's shoes," "the sun's rays," "the natives of Cuba," etc.
- e. The Adverbial Case is that use of the noun

with or without the preposition, to denote the time, place, etc., of an action, being, or state; as in the sentences, "John went home yesterday," "We arrived in the city at day-break," etc.

NOTE.—Cases "c.," "d.," and "e.," will probably be criticised by the wise and learned, especially the older authors and educators. But why the Appositive is not a "case" of the noun is a mystery to us. And it is not in the "same case" with the noun to which it is apposed, for it is an element of a lower rank, that is, a subordinate element, and hence cannot enter the same category with elements of a higher rank at the same time.

The Adjective Case has so long been called the "Possessive" case, that many will hesitate to accept the name, "Adjective" case. But it is always an adjective use of the noun, and rarely means "possession" purely.

The Adverbial Case is such a use of the noun as is always adverbial, and never "objective" save when it falls upon the line between the adverbial and the objective, and is then called, and rightly, the "Adverbial Object." The use of the noun with the preposition as an adverb. is in no sense "objective." Hence we prefer the name Adverbial Case.

There is another use of nouns in our language, which should be noted,—the use in naming the person addressed. This is called the "independent case." It has no synthetic connection with the expressions near which it occurs. It corresponds to the "Vocative Case" of the Latin language. In analysis, the meaning of such nouns should be noted, and they be designated as in the "Independent Case" by direct address.

II. THE PRONOUN.

I. DEFINITION—A **Pronoun** (Latin, *pro*, for and *nomen*, name,) is a word used for, or instead of, a noun.

II. CLASSIFICATION—1. According to their structure, Pronouns are classified as follows:

a. Simple, when in their simplest, original form; as, I, he, thou, that, etc.

- b. Reflexive, when used to intensify the idea expressed by some other pronoun, or noun; as, myself, himself, itself, etc.
- c. Compound, when used to broaden the scope of the idea they express, or of the idea limited by the idea they express; as, whoever, whatever, whosoever, etc.

2. According to their uses, or their natures, Pronouns are classified as follows:

- a. Personal Pronouns, such as by their forms denote the person, number, and case, and sometimes the gender; as, I, thou, he, she, it, and their declined forms.
- b. Relative Pronouns, such as are used to show the relation between, the idea expressed by some noun and a related thought expressed in a clause element; as in the expression, "The apples that you gave me," etc., as, Who, which, what, that, etc.
- c. Interrogative Pronouns, when they are used to ask a question; as in the sentence, "Whose book is that? etc."
- d. Possessive Pronouns, when they are used to express the idea both of the possessor and the thing possessed; as, mine, thine, its, his, hers, ours, yours and theirs.
- e. Adjective Pronouns, such as are used to limit the ideas expressed by nouns by denoting possession or ownership; as, my, thy, your, its, his, her.

III. PROPERTIES OF PRONOUNS.—**The Properties** of pronouns are the same as those of Nouns; Gender, Person, Number, and Case. Because the Pronoun is one of the most highly inflected parts of speech in our

language, a careful study of its declension is very necessary.

IV. DECLENSION.--Declension of the Pronoun is the giving of the various forms it assumes to denote the Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

DECLENSIONS.

Personal Pronouns.

Nominative. Possessive. Adjective. Objective.

First Person.

| | | | | |
|----------------|----|------|-----|-----|
| Singular | I | mine | my | me. |
| Plural..... | we | ours | our | us |

Second Person.

| | | | | |
|----------------|-----------|-------|------|------|
| Singular | thou | thine | thy | thee |
| Plural..... | ye, (you) | yours | your | you |

Third Person. Masculine.

| | | | | |
|----------------|------|--------|-------|------|
| Singular | he | his | his | him |
| Plural..... | they | theirs | their | them |

Third Person, Feminine.

| | | | | |
|----------------|------|--------|-------|------|
| Singular | she | hers | her | her |
| Plural..... | they | theirs | their | them |

Third Person, Neuter.

| | | | | |
|----------------|------|--------|-------|-------|
| Singular | it | its | its | it |
| Plural..... | they | theirs | their | them. |

Relative Pronouns.

| | | | | |
|----------------|-----|-------|-------|------|
| Singular | who | whose | whose | whom |
| Plural..... | who | whose | whose | whom |

NOTE.—As the other Pronouns have very little variety of form, and as these few forms are usually correctly used, no further space will here be given to this subject.

NOTE.—The Nominative form of the Relative “who” is constantly used instead of the objective form, “whom.” This should have been corrected long before the pupil has reached this grade of work, by a careful and constant supervision of the oral language of the pupil by the teacher.

III. THE VERB.

I. DEFINITION—A **Verb** is a word that asserts action, being, or state. Some verbs—all attributive verbs—express action and also assert this action as an attribute of their subjects.

II. CLASSIFICATION—1. According to their completeness of predication, verbs are classified as follows:

- a. Copulative, when they are used to express an idea of agreement between their subjects and some attribute of their subjects; as in the sentence, "John is writing."

Some Copulative Verbs have a purely copulative use, while others may have this and other uses. Hence, Copulative Verbs are sub-classed as:

1. Pure Copulative Verbs, such as are used purely to assert agreement; as, be, am, is, are, was, were.
2. Impure Copulative Verbs, such as may be used to express other than mere assertions of agreements. They are essentially of two kinds, as follows:
 - a. Sense Verbs, such as express mind-decisions of agreement the certainty of which is left to the power of one of the "special senses" to determine; as, looks, smells, tastes, sounds, and feels, etc.
 - b. Mixed Copulative Verbs, such as are used to assert agreement, and at the same time may possess the nature of a pure attributive verb; as in the sentence, "He appears scholarly, etc."
- b. Attributive Verbs, when used both to express an attribute of action and to assert agree-

ment between this attribute and the subject ; as in the sentence, "John reads" (John is reading). "The boy studies his lesson," (The boy is studying his lesson), etc.

According to their peculiar nature, Attributive Verbs are :

1. Intransitive, when they are used to express an idea of action that is not received by some person or thing ; as in the sentence, "The boy runs."
2. Transitive, when they express an idea of action that is received by some person or thing ; as in the sentence, "The boy loves his mother."

2. According to their mode of forming their Past Indicative and Perfect Infinitive, Verbs are classified as follows :

- a. Irregular, when the past indicative and the perfect infinitive are formed irregularly ; as, go, went, gone, etc.
- b. Regular, when the past indicative and the perfect infinitive are regularly formed by the addition of "d," or "ed" to the present indicatives ; as, love, loved, loved, etc.
- c. Defective, when some of the "principal parts" are wanting ; as, must, ought, etc.
- d. Redundant, when there is more than one form for one or more of the "principal parts ;" as, bend, bent, or bended, etc.

III. PROPERTIES.—The "Properties" of the verb are the various modifications, or inflections, it undergoes to indicate the voice, mode, tense, and agreements, of the verb. The names of the properties are, (1) Voice, (2) Mode, (3) Tense, (4) Person and number.

1. **Voice** is that property of the Transitive Attributive Verb which designates whether the subject of the verb receives the act of some other agent, or whether the subject of the verb performs an act that is received by some other person or thing.

Transitive Verbs have two voices:

- a. Active, when the subject of the verb performs an act that is received by some other person or things; as, "John writes letters."
- b. Passive when the subject of the verb is the recipient of the action, which has been performed by some other agency; as, "The apple was bitten by the boy."

2. **Mode** is that inflection of the verb by which the manner in which the assertions are made by the verb are shown.

There are four Modes, (a) Indicative, (b) Potential, (c) Subjunctive, and (d) Imperative.

- a. The Indicative Mode is that used to assert in the simplest form, the agreement between the fundamental and the attributive elements of a judgment; as, "James recites."
- b. The Potential Mode is the use of auxiliaries to denote the power, possibility, permission, will, duty, or obligation to perform an act; as, in the sentence, "I may go," etc.

Observation.—The intervention of auxiliaries destroys the modification of the verb to denote the person and number of the subject.

- c. The Subjunctive Mode is the method of expression in which the agreement in the judgment expressed in the principal sentence rests upon a condition as expressed in a subordinate clause. In this Mode, the Person

and Number of the verb are effected. The words, if, tho, unless, etc., in the conditional clause, are the usual signs of the condition, as in the sentence, "If I go, you will remain."

- c. The Imperative Mode is the use of a verb to express a command or an entreaty, etc. The peculiarity of this Mode is, that the subject is omitted; (See discussion of the Imperative Sentence, Part I.) as, "Ring the bells," etc.

In this Mode, the Person and Number of the subject do not enter into the consideration. In the English language commands are always given to the person or thing addressed, hence, we may regard the subject as being of the second person.

NOTE.—Many authors regard the Infinitive as a verb, and therefore discuss what they are pleased to call the "Infinitive Mode." But, since Mode is the "Manner of *assertion* of action, being, or state," and since Infinitives do not, and cannot, assert, we feel fully justified in disregarding an Infinitive Mode." All modes express ideas of action in exactly the same way. It is the manner of the assertion that we consider in the study of mode. The forms, uses, and relations of the Infinitive constitute the proper study of that part of speech.

3. **Tense** is that form of the verb, or that use of auxiliaries which generally denotes the time with reference to the present, of an action, being, or state.

In the Indicative Mode there are six tenses that clearly distinguish time with reference to the present time:—

- a. Present Tense denotes present time, and is signified by the present indicative form of the verb; as, "I write," "I am writing," etc.

- b. Past Tense denotes past time, and is signified by the past indicative form of the verb; as, "I wrote," "I was writing," etc.
- c. Future Tense denotes future time, and is signified by the present indicative form of the verb, together with the auxiliaries, shall and will, as tense signs, and these with "be," in the progressive form; as, "I shall write," "I shall be writing."
- d. The Perfect (or Present Perfect Tense) denotes action, being, or state as completed at the present time, and is denoted by the perfect infinitive, together with the use of the auxiliaries, have, has, or hast, to express the idea of present time, with been, and the *ing*-infinitive in the progressive form; as, "I have written," "I have been writing."
- e. The Pluperfect (or Past Perfect) Tense denotes action, being, or state as completed at some past time, and is expressed by the perfect infinitive, together with the use of the auxiliaries, had, or hadst, to denote past time, with been and the *ing*-infinitive in the progressive form; as, "I had written," "Thou hadst been writing," etc.
- f. The Future Perfect Tense denotes action, being, or state as completed at some future time, and is denoted by the use of the perfect infinitive, together with the auxiliaries, shall and will, to denote future time, and have, with been and the *ing*-infinitive in the progressive form; as, "I shall have written," "He will have been writing," etc.

NOTE.—The Future Perfect Tense seems to be the Present Perfect Tense pushed forward into the future and so signified by “shall,” or “will.” “Been” intervenes in all these perfect tenses progressive to denote completed action. Note that the auxiliaries in the tenses receive modifications to denote the person and number of the Subject.

In the Potential Mode there are four so-called Tenses. A close study of the forms will disclose the fact that the real time expressed is very indefinite.

- a. Present Tense; as, “I may go,” “He can study,” etc.
- b. Past Tense; as, “I might learn,” “You could try,” etc.
- c. Present Perfect Tense; as, “He may have gone,” etc.
- d. Past Perfect Tense; as, “John might have succeeded,” etc.

NOTE.—Carefully study the real time expressed in the above sentences. What peculiar things do you note in each, with reference to the time of the actions?

NOTE.—Review what is said in Part I., concerning Mode Auxiliaries.

In the Subjunctive Mode, there are six tenses, as in the Indicative, and the time, with reference, to the present, is generally clearly distinguished in each. Not all the tense forms in the six tenses are in constant use, in this Mode, but all are allowable.

NOTE.—The signs if, tho, unless, except, precede the verb in the Subjunctive Mode, and the modifications of the verb to agree with the subject in person and number are cancelled. In practice, however, there is much irregularity, even among our ablest writers and speakers, in this regard.

In the Imperative Mode, there is but one tense, the Present, and this is indicated by the present indicative form of the verb, either in the common, or in the progressive form; as, “Stand,” or “Be standing,”

etc. Possibly there is an emphatic form of the verb in this Mode. If so, it is "do" together with the above forms; as, "Do thou stand," or, "Do thou be standing." These latter forms are not in present use, however, and hence scarcely merit notice in a study of strictly modern English.

IV. THE INFINITIVE.

I. DEFINITION.—An Infinitive is a word used to express an idea of action, being or state, without the limitation of the person and number of its subject.

II. CLASSIFICATION.—1. According to their nature and use, Infinitives are classified as follows:

- a. Substantive, when used merely to name an action, being, or state.
- b. Attributive, when used to express the idea of an attribute of its subject, either nominative or objective.
- c. Participial, when used as an adjective or as an adverb, it expresses an idea that qualifies an idea expressed by a noun, or a verb, or another infinitive.

2. According to their form, Infinitives are classified as follows:

- a. Root-infinitives—Present Indicative forms of the verb, usually with "to."
- b. Ing-infinitives, the Indicative Present form, plus the syllable "-ing," denoting action in progress.
- c. The "-ed," the "-d," and the irregular forms, to denote completed action.

3. According to the time of the action they express, Infinitives are classified as follows:

- a. Present, denoting present action, being, or state.
- b. Perfect, denoting completed action, being, or state.

V. ADJECTIVES.

I. DEFINITION.—An adjective is a word used to express an idea that limits or qualifies an idea expressed by a noun; as, “green leaves,” “a parched desert,” “running water,” etc.

II. CLASSIFICATION.—According as the ideas expressed by adjectives limit or qualify the ideas expressed by nouns, adjectives are classified as follows:

1. Definitive, when expressing ideas that limit by denoting what, whose, how many, etc.; as, this pen, John’s book, nine men, etc.

2. Descriptive, when expressing ideas that qualify by denoting what kind; that is, by denoting some quality, or modifying action of the person or thing named by the noun; as, sweet apples, warm weather, falling rain, running stream, etc.

III. PROPERTIES.—Descriptive Adjectives have one property, that is, Comparison.

1. DEFINITION.—Comparison is that form or modification of qualifying adjectives by which they denote a greater or a lesser degree of the quality possessed by the person or thing named by the noun.

2. DEGREES.—With reference to the positive, or the natural, or the standard degree, of the quality, there are two degrees of comparison, namely, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

- a. The Comparative Degree denotes a quantity of the quality somewhat higher or lower,

greater or less, than the standard quality ; as, wiser actions, more beautiful sunset, etc.

The Comparative Degree is expressed by the use of the suffix “-er,” or the words “more” or “less” prefixed to, the word expressing the standard quality.

- b. The Superlative Degree denotes the highest or the lowest, the greatest or the least, quantity of the quality, as compared with the standard quality ; as, the tallest trees, the sweetest apples, etc.

The Superlative Degree is expressed by the suffix “-est,” or the words “most,” or “least,” prefixed to, the adjective.

VI. THE ADVERB.

I. DEFINITION.—An Adverb is a word that is used to express an idea that qualifies or limits ideas of action, being, or state, expressed by verbs or infinitives, and to limit ideas of quality expressed by adjectives and other adverbs, by denoting the manner, time, place, cause, reason, accompaniment, or agency, etc., of the action, being, or state, expressed by verbs, or by denoting the degree of quality expressed by adjectives and adverbs.

II. CLASSIFICATION.—According to their nature or use, Adverbs are classified as follows :

1. Adverbs of Manner, such as qualify the idea of action, etc., by denoting the manner of the performance or the being so ; as, “running swiftly.”

2. Adverbs of Place, such as limit the idea of action to a certain place ; as, “standing there.”

3. Adverbs of Time, such as limit the idea of action by denoting when it took place ; as, "reciting now."

4. Adverbs of Cause, such as limit the idea of action by denoting the Why? of its performance ; as, "Therefore he suffers."

5. Adverbs of Degree, such as express ideas that intensify the ideas expressed by descriptive adjectives and adverbs of manner ; as, "most civilized country," "running very swiftly," etc.

6. Adverbs of Reason, closely related to Adverbs of Cause.

NOTE.—Adverbs of Accompaniment, Agency, etc., express shades of meaning in the form of phrase elements, and sometimes in the form of clause elements. Such adverbs are to be studied better in Analysis. They have no word-representatives in our language, as is practically true of adverbs of cause and of reason, save in the use of the interrogative "Why."

III. PROPERTIES.—Comparison. Adverbs of Manner, derived as they are from descriptive adjectives, are compared in the same manner as are descriptive adjectives. Review Comparison of Adjectives, and apply the principles to Adverbs of Manner.

VII. CONNECTIVES.

I. DEFINITION.—Connectives are such words as are used to express the relations existing between the ideas or judgments expressed by words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

II. CLASSIFICATION.—According to the rank of the ideas or judgments between which they express relations, Connectives are classified as follows :

1. Co-ordinate, when they express the relations existing between elements of the same rank ; as, and, or, etc.

According to the nature of the relations they express, Co-ordinate Connectives are classified as follows :

- a. Copulative, when used merely to express the relation of aggregation of ideas or thoughts of the same rank ; as, and, also.
- b. Adversative, when used to express the idea of contrary conditions in the members joined ; as, but, though, etc.
- c. Comparative, when used to express the relation of a comparison between the related members joined ; as, as many as, as far as, etc.
- d. Alternative, when used to express the idea of a choice or preference, of the co-ordinately used ideas or thoughts used disjunctively ; as, or, nor, etc.

Alternative Connectives may be classified as follows :

1. As to form—
 - a. Simple ; as, or, nor, either, neither.
 - b. Double ; as, either—or, and neither—nor.
2. As to Nature—
 - a. Positive ; as, or, and either—or.
 - b. Negative ; as, nor, and neither—nor.

2. Subordinate Connectives, when they are such as are used to express the relations existing between judgments or ideas of unequal rank.

Subordinate Connectives are sub-classed as follows :

- a. Conditional Connectives, when used to express the relations existing between a principal and a subordinate judgment, when the subordinate judgment is the condition upon which the principal judgment becomes a fact as stated ; Examples—if, tho, unless.
- b. Relative Pronouns, which are used to ex-

press the relation of the judgment expressed by the Adjective Clause to the idea limited by this related judgment; as, who, which, what.

- c. Relative Adverbs, which are used to express the relation existing between a subordinate related judgment and the idea expressed by a noun, which it limits by denoting time or place; as, when, where.
- d. Conjunctive Adverbs, which are used to express the relation existing between a subordinate related judgment and some idea of action, being, or state, which the subordinate related judgment limits by denoting time, place, etc.; as, when, where.
- e. Prepositions, which are used to express the relations existing between subordinate related ideas and the ideas which these subordinate related ideas limit or qualify; as, on, in, by, into, from, of, under, etc.

VIII. EXCLAMATIVES.

DEFINITION.—Exclamatives are words used to express surprise, enthusiasm, sentiment, scorn, hatred, admonition, admiration, disregard, etc.

Following are examples of Exclamatives:

Oh!, Behold!, Hurrah!, Hallelujah!, Bravo!, Beware!, Glory!, Wonderful!, Pooh!, etc.

In analysis of thought, the significance of such expressions ought to be considered, and they should be named, simply, "Exclamatives."

SUPPLEMENT.

I.

RULES FOR SPELLING PLURAL NOUNS.

RULE I.—The plurals of nouns are regularly formed by adding “s” to the singular form.

RULE II.—The plurals of nouns ending in “y” preceded by a consonant are formed by changing final “y” to “i,” and adding “es” to this form.

RULE III.—The plurals of nouns ending in “f” or “fe” are formed by changing “f” or, “fe” to “v,” and adding “es.”

There are some exceptions to Rule III., as “fife,” “fifes,” “staff,” “staffs,” etc.

RULE IV.—The plurals of nouns ending in the sound of “s,” “sh,” “ch,” “x,” “z,” “j,” are formed by adding “es” to the singular.

RULE V.—The plurals of most nouns ending in “o” preceded by a constant sound are formed by adding “es” to the singular.

RULE VI.—The plurals of some nouns are denoted by different words.

RULE VII.—The plurals of signs, letters, figures, etc., are formed by adding “’s” to the singular.

RULE VIII.—In compound words, the basic part is usually pluralized.

RULE IX.—In some compound words, both parts are pluralized.

RULE X.—Some nouns have two plurals, according to the meaning they are meant to express.

RULE XI.—Some nouns have no plural form.

RULE XII.—To spell the possessive forms—

1. First spell the singular form, then add the possessive sign ('s). If the singular ends in "s," sometimes add the apostrophe (') only.

2. Plural. First spell the plural, then add the possessive sign ('s). If the plural ends in "s" usually add the apostrophe (') only:

NOTE.—Proper nouns are easily pluralized.

NOTE.—Foreign nouns are variously pluralized. As little use is made of them in this grade, it is thought unnecessary to treat them here.

NOTE.—*To The Teacher:* Supply list of nouns involving the above rules, and require the pupils to acquire skill in correctly writing the plurals.

II.

USES OF CAPITAL LETTERS—PUNCTUATION.

The general uses of Capital Letters should be already accurately known by pupils of this stage of language study. It should be taught incidentally but persistently in connection with all the language work for all the preceding years, as well as should also, the uses of the period and other marks of punctuation, especially as far as their fixed uses extend. Scarcely does one ever learn all the uses of the comma, but if properly taught, the fixed uses of all the marks of punctuation may be definitely learned by every pupil before the age of twelve.

Let the teacher see to it, that the pupils in the grades receive the above knowledge in connection with the written composition, and other language work. Punctuation, in its broader sense is learned only by punctuating, and the flexibility of the use of the comma, especially, will for a long time be a source of something akin to wonder to the student.

III.

CONJUGATION.

To “conjugate a verb” is to produce all the forms of the verb in the various voices, modes, tenses, and persons and numbers.

The author does not consider this work finished without supplying a model for the conjugation of verbs. Too little attention is paid of late to the fixing of the correct forms of verbs in the mind of the pupil. The conjugation of the verb “teach” is appended hereto:

Teach.

Principal Parts—present, teach; past taught; perfect infinitive, taught.

Active Voice.

Indicative Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. I teach. | We teach. |
| 2. Thou teachest, (you teach). | Ye or you teach. |
| 3. He teaches. | They teach. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I taught. | We taught. |
| 2. Thou taughtest (you taught). | Ye or you taught. |
| 3. He taught. | They taught. |

Future Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I shall teach. | We shall teach. |
| 2. Thou wilt (you will) teach. | Ye or you will teach. |
| 3. He will teach. | They will teach. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I have taught. | We have taught. |
| 2. Thou hast (you have) taught. | Ye or you have taught. |
| 3. He has taught. | They have taught. |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I had taught. | We had taught. |
| 2. Thou hadst (you had) taught. | Ye or you had taught. |
| 3. He had taught. | They had taught. |

Future Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I shall have taught. | We shall have taught. |
| 2. Thou wilt (you will) have taught. | Ye or you will have taught. |
| 3. He will have taught. | They will have taught. |

Potential Mode.

Present tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I may teach. | We may teach. |
| 2. Thou mayst (you may) teach. | Ye or you may teach. |
| 3. He may teach. | They may teach. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I might teach. | We might teach. |
| 2. Thou mightst (you might) teach. | Ye or you might teach. |
| 3. He might teach. | They might teach. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I may have taught. | We may have taught |
| 2. Thou mayst (you may) have taught. | Ye or you may have taught. |
| 3. He may have taught. | They may have taught. |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| 1. I might have taught. | We might have taught. |
| 2. Thou mightst (you might) have taught. | Ye or you might have taught. |
| 3. He might have taught. | They might have taught. |

Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. If I teach. | If we teach. |
| 2. If thou (you) teach. | If ye or you teach. |
| 3. If he teach. | If they teach. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. If I taught. | If we taught. |
| 2. If thou (you) taught. | If ye or you taught. |
| 3. If he taught. | If they taught. |

Future Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. If I shall teach. | If we shall teach. |
| 2. If thou (you) will teach. | If ye or you will teach. |
| 3. If he will teach. | If they will teach. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. If I have taught. | If we have taught. |
| 2. If thou (you) have taught. | If ye or you have taught. |
| 3. If he has taught. | If they have taught. |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. If I had taught. | If we had taught. |
| 2. If thou (you) had taught. | If ye or you had taught. |
| 3. If he had taught. | If they had taught. |

Future Perfect Tense.

1. If I shall have taught. If we shall have taught.
2. If thou (you) will have taught. If ye or you will have taught.
3. If he will have taught. If they will have taught.

Imperative Mode.

2. Teach thou. 2. Teach Ye.

Passive Voice.

Synopsis.

Indicative Mode.

Present TenseI am taught.
 Past TenseI was taught.
 Future TenseI shall be taught.
 Present Perfect TenseI have been taught.
 Past Perfect TenseI had been taught.
 Future Perfect TenseI shall have been taught.

Potential Mode.

Present TenseI may be taught.
 Past TenseI might be taught.
 Present Perfect TenseI may have been taught.
 Past Perfect TenseI might have been taught.

Subjunctive Mode.

Present TenseIf I be taught.
 Past TenseIf I were taught.
 Future TenseIf I shall be taught.
 Present Perfect TenseIf I have been taught.
 Past Perfect TenseIf I had been taught.
 Future Perfect TenseIf I shall have been taught.

Imperative Mode.

Present TenseBe taught, or Be thou taught.

NOTE.—Let many verbs be conjugated as above, until the pupil is thoroughly acquainted with all the various forms in the different voices, modes, tenses, persons, and numbers.

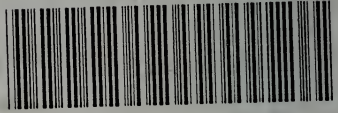
NOTE.—It will be observed that some of the forms of the subjunctive are not in common use. Some are indeed weak. But as all these tenses are represented in the subjunctive mode, it is better that they be studied in the complete conjugation.

NOTE.—Some authors touch the Subjunctive lightly, because they realize that the gradual growth and change of the language are slowly gnawing at the peculiar modifications of the verb in this mode, and that they will, probably, finally end in the smoother forms of the indicative mode.

NOTE.—*To the Teacher:* The foregoing study of the parts of speech should not and cannot be kept entirely separate from the studies in analysis. By properly doing the work of Part First, almost all of the work in Part Second will have received the attention of the pupil. Part Second should be a summary of the pupil's knowledge already gained from Part First and elsewhere, and should supply other details necessary to a thorough understanding of the vital, underlying principles of our language.

It is confidently believed that, with a thorough mastery of the lessons of this book, the pupil will be prepared to lay hold upon whatever difficulties remain with power to grasp and to solve the same. If such be the consequence of this study, this work has not been done in vain.

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